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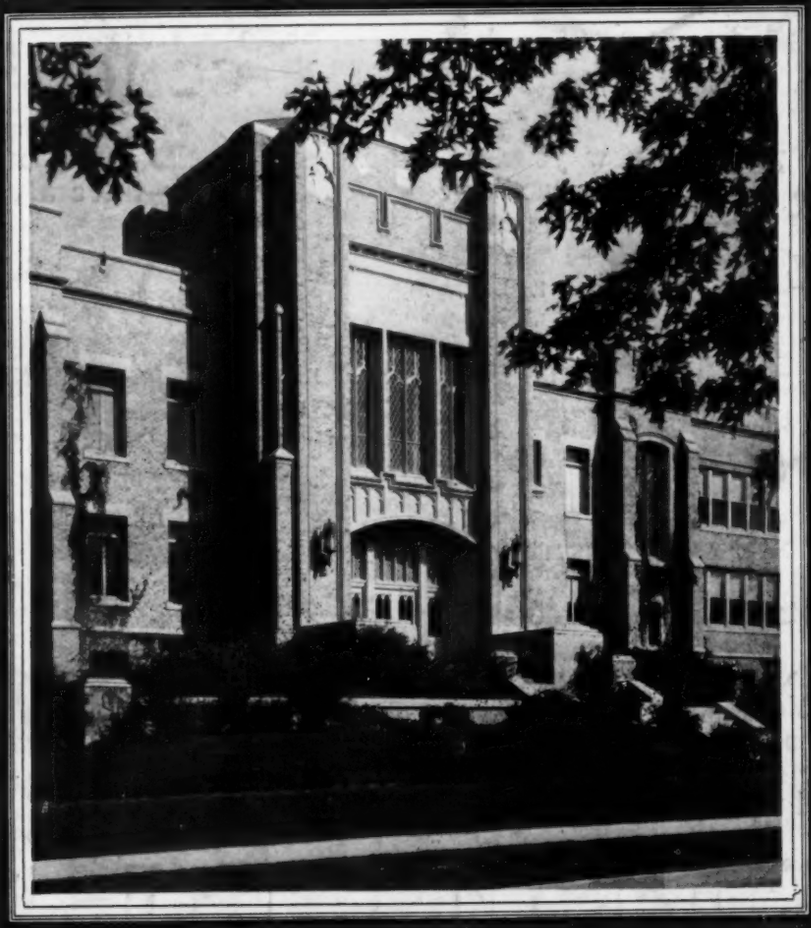

VOL. III
No. 6

JUNE
1929

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8

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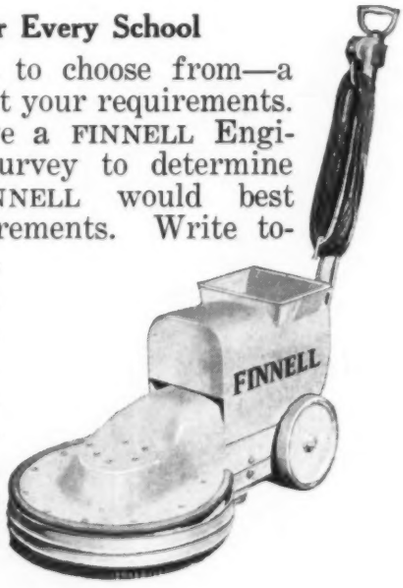

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It scrubs

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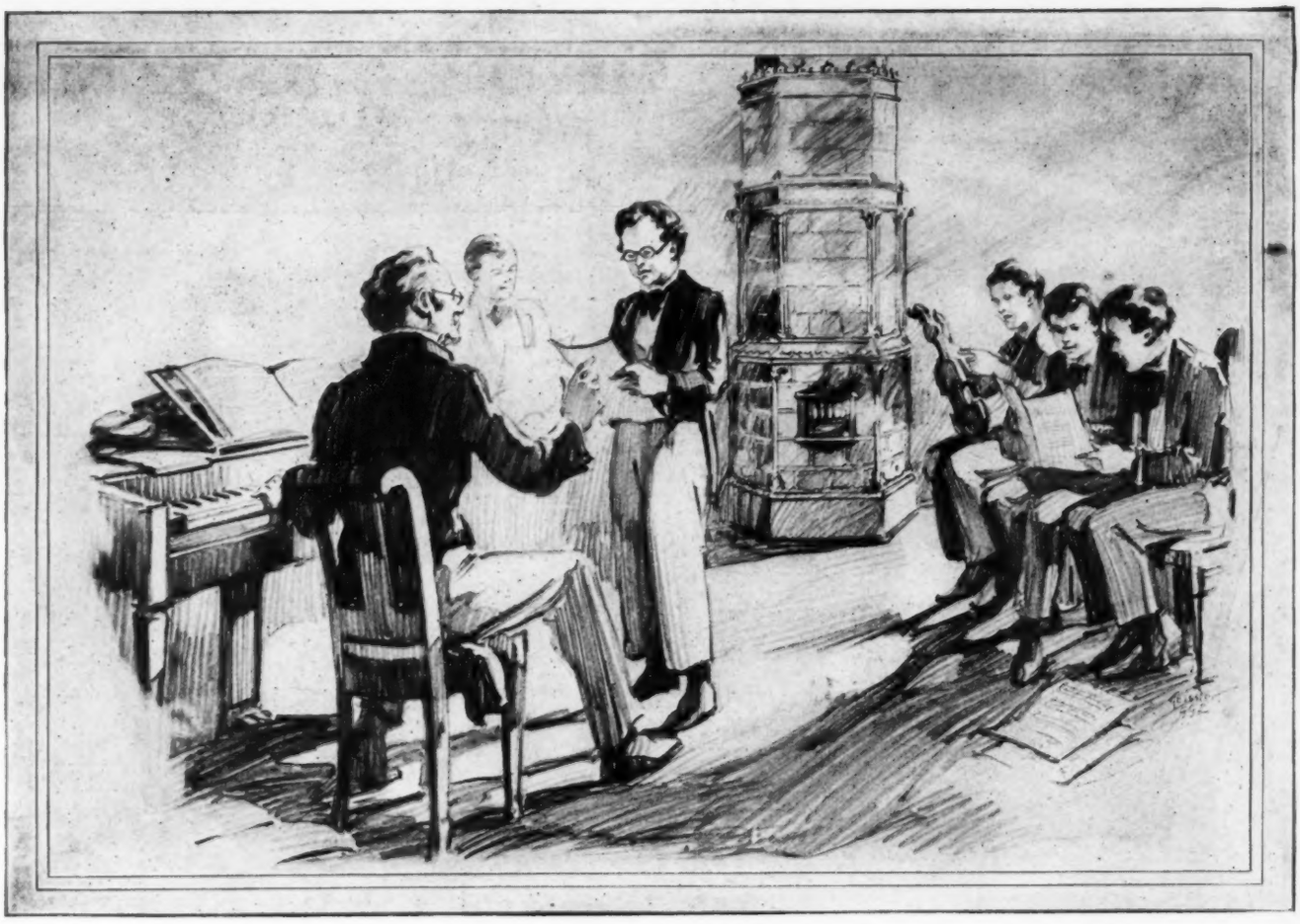

When Schubert Wrote His "Serenade"

James Watt owes to the fireplace his discovery of the usefulness of steam, but the German porcelain stove was of little help to Franz Schubert when he wrote his "Serenade." It must have been more of a drug than an inspiration.

Schubert wrote many of his famous compositions while he was still of school age, yet his best work was done outside the classroom even while a student of Salieri at the famous music school in Vienna.

Wherever the ornate porcelain stove was used, hot, stale, stuffy, devitalized air filled the room. The reason for this was that the stove could not completely heat a room unless doors and windows were kept tightly shut and circulation of fresh air checked.

Nowadays we don't expect a boy of 13 or 14 to write songs and symphonies anywhere, but while in school every boy and girl must have pure, fresh air to breathe, and clean, uniform heat for comfort and health.

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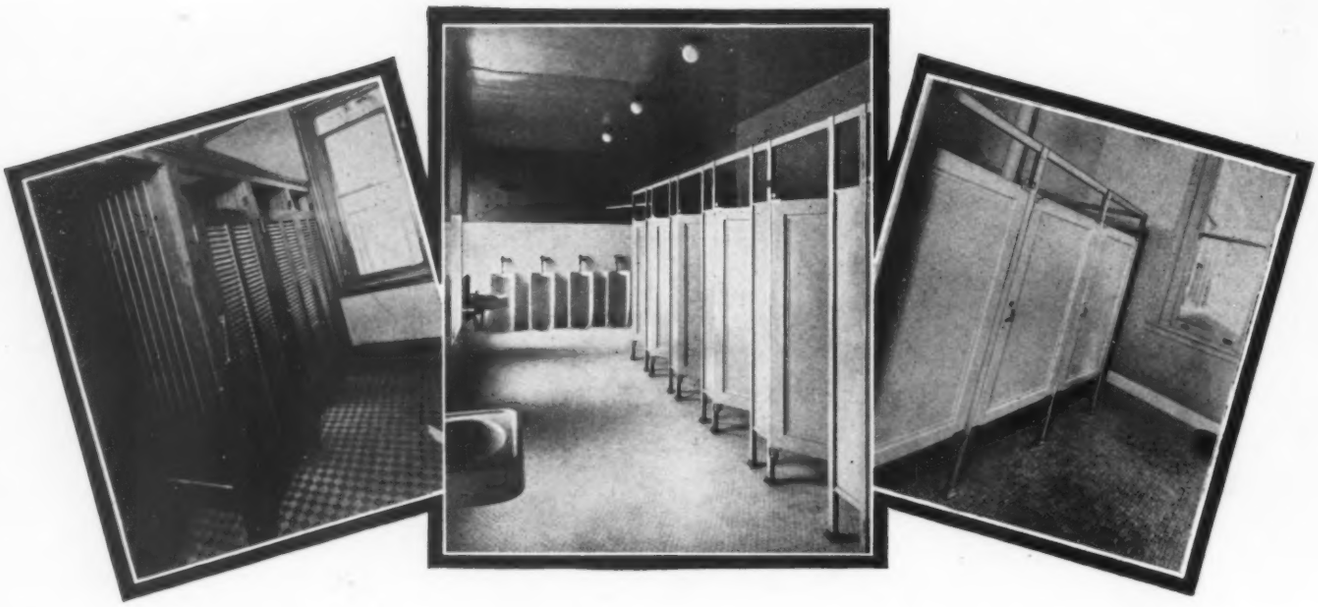

THERE is no middle-ground where the health of children is concerned. Toilet sanitation is of the utmost importance in both public and private schools. Old fashioned, unsanitary toilet compartments must go—they are a source of dirt and disease that every school should abolish.

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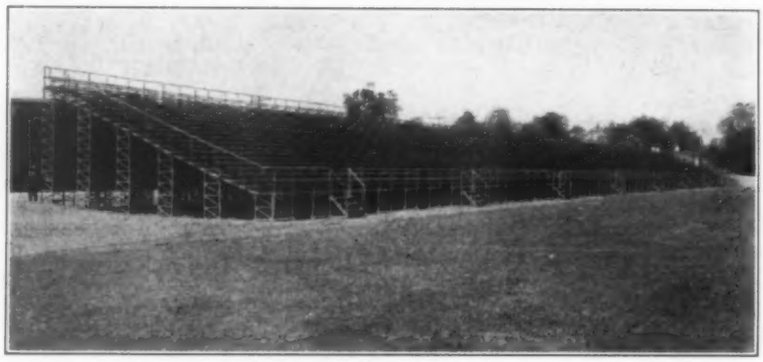

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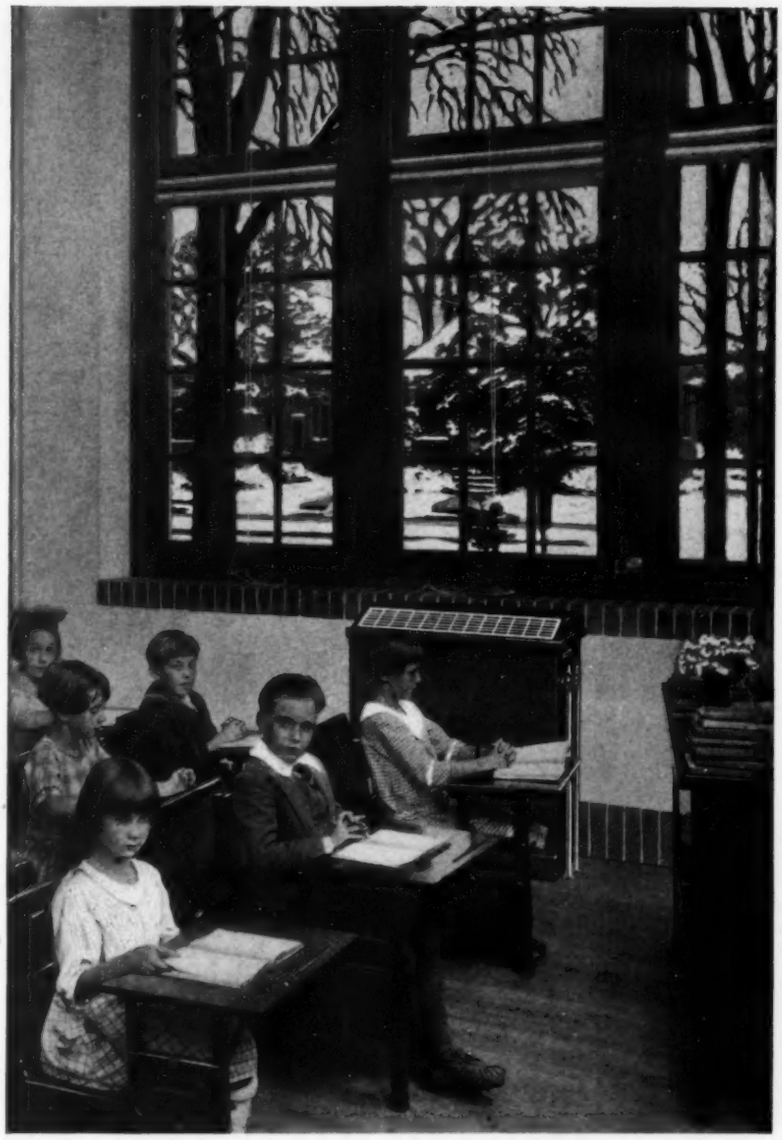

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ARTHUR MOEHLMAN of the University of Michigan begins a new regular feature in the publication—a digest of current literature for school executives.

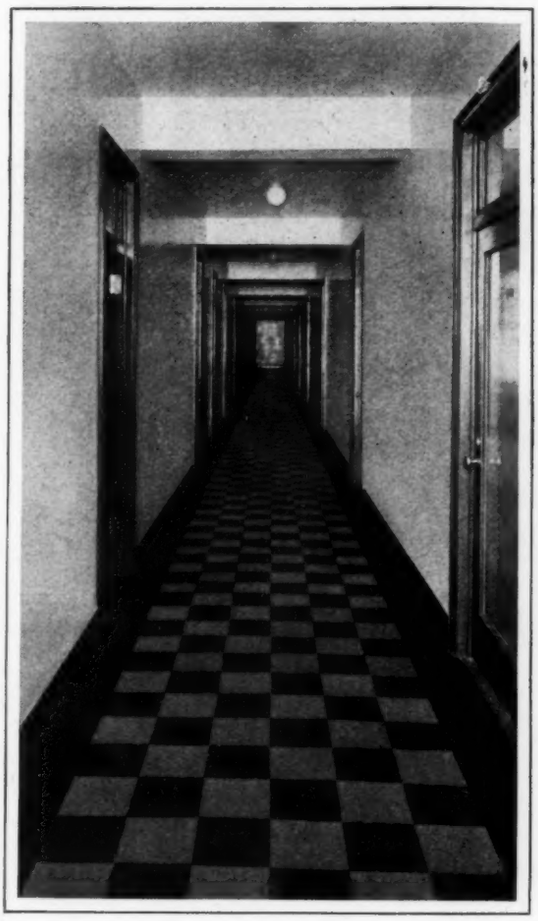
VERNON E. CHASE, Director of Research for the Fordson Public Schools at Dearborn, Michigan, discusses the importance of finding and using facts in dealing with personnel problems.

HARRY DEXTER KITSON of Columbia University describes methods of securing jobs for children who leave school.

W. W. THEISEN of Milwaukee contributes another interesting article on school publicity.

These and many other pertinent discussions will be found next month in the pages of The NATION'S SCHOOLS.

TILE—THAT *HUSHES* FOOTSTEPS AND DEFEATS WEAR



A Duraflex Tile Installation in the International Magazine Building, 959 Eighth Ave., New York City. Huberth & Huberth, Agents, 2 Columbus Circle, New York City.

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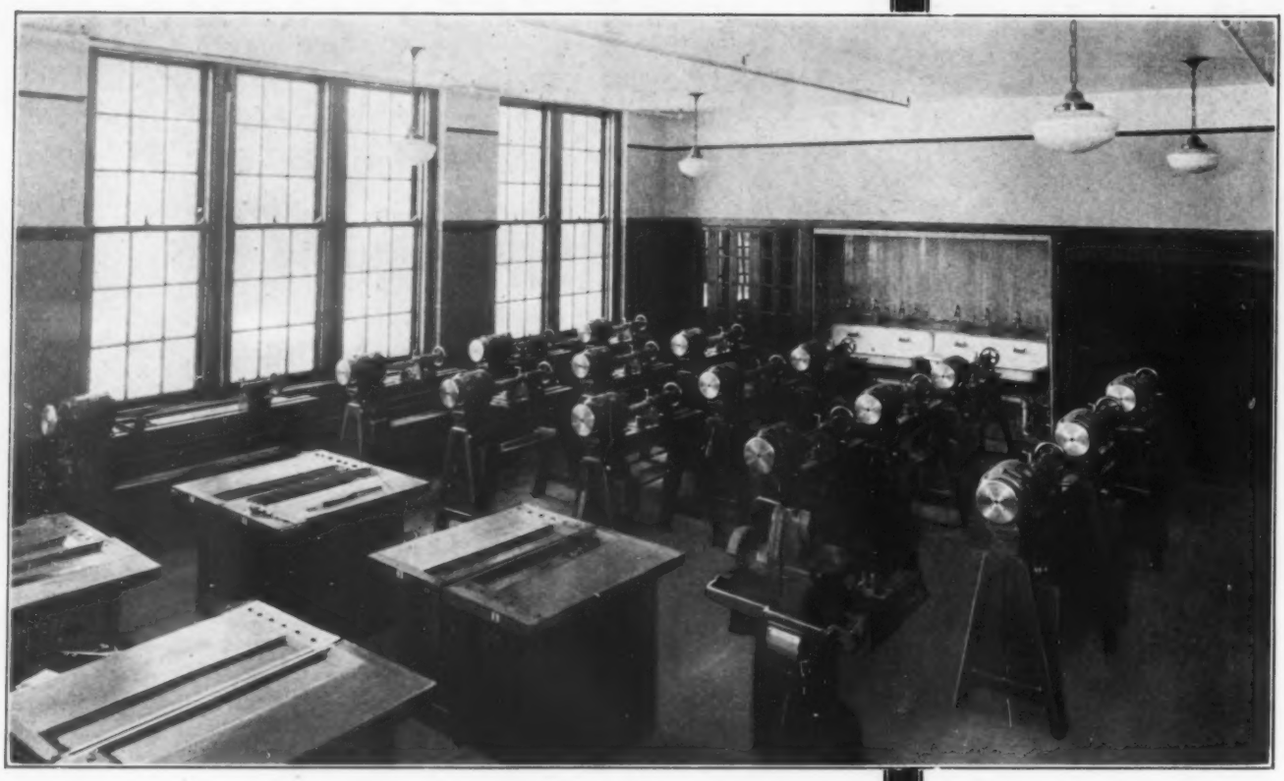

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Installs

16

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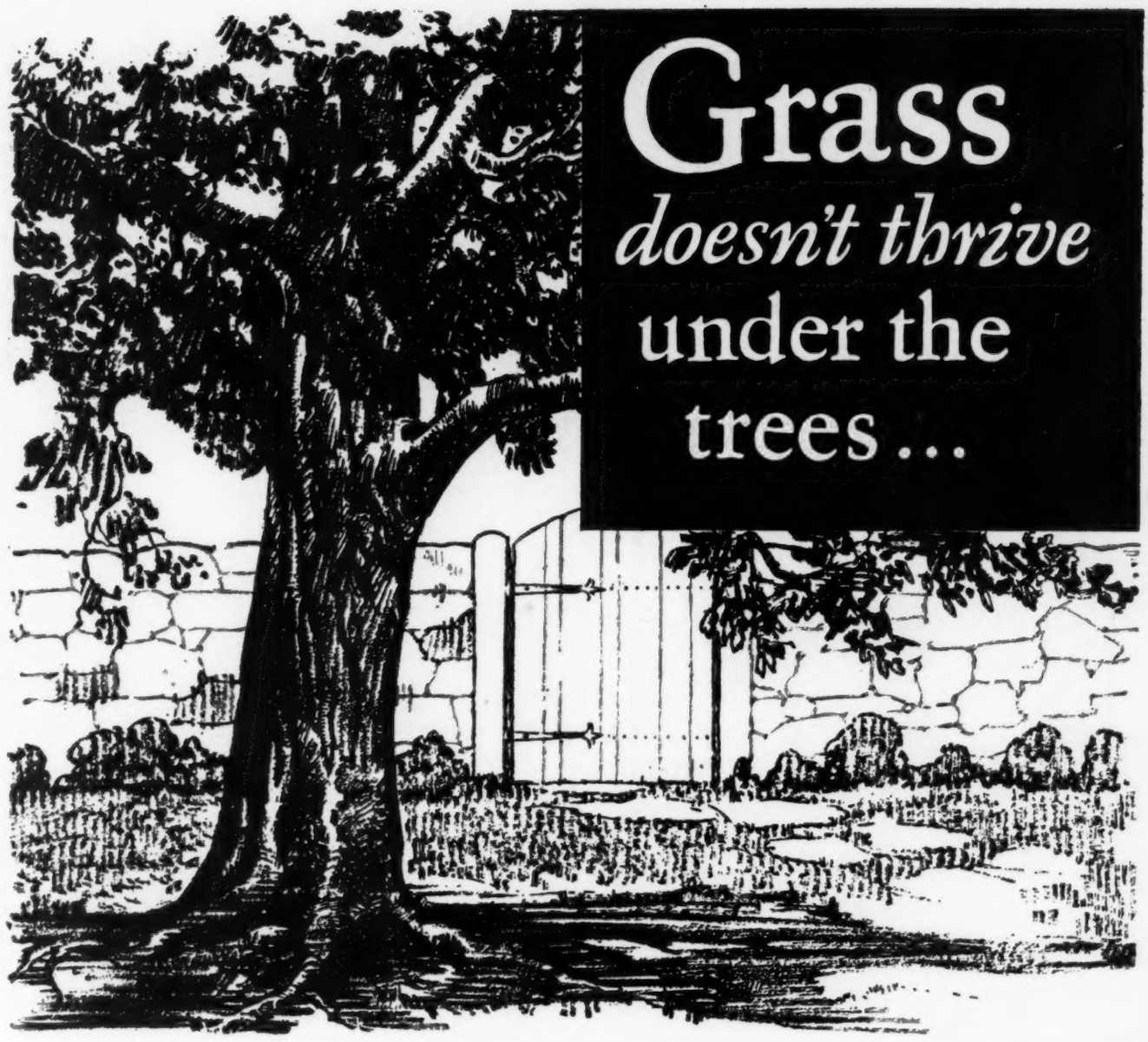

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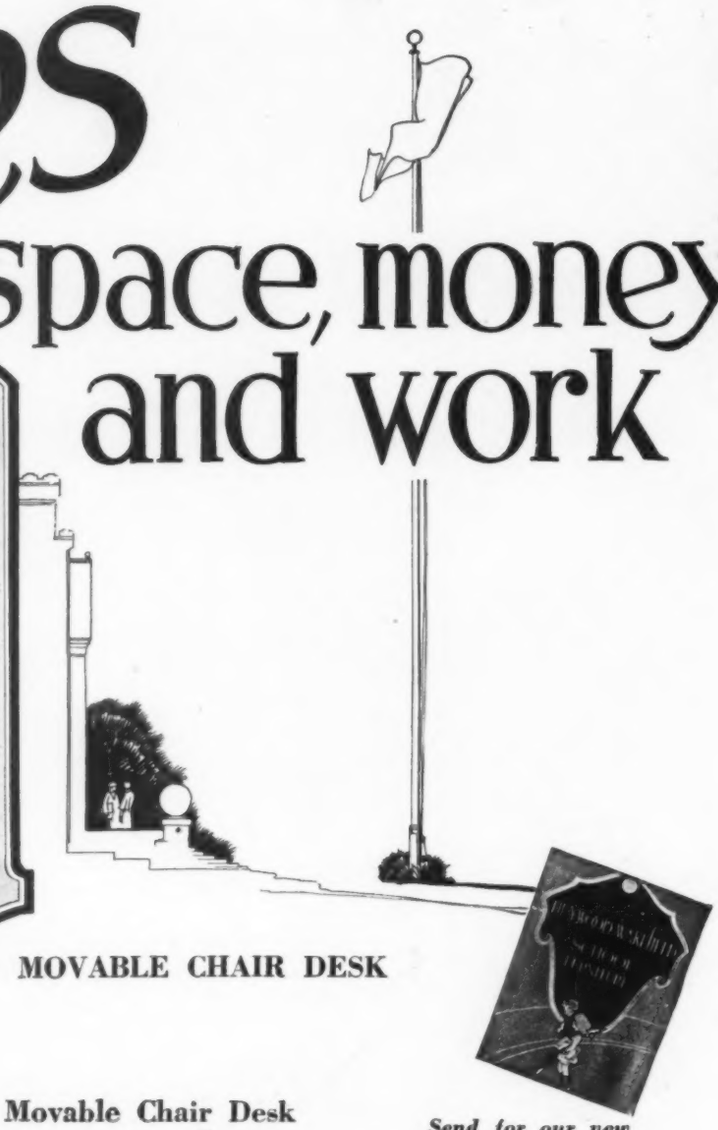

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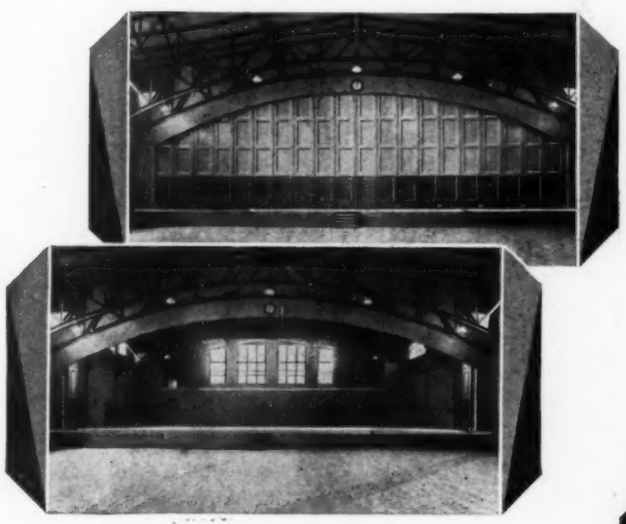

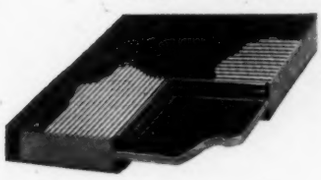

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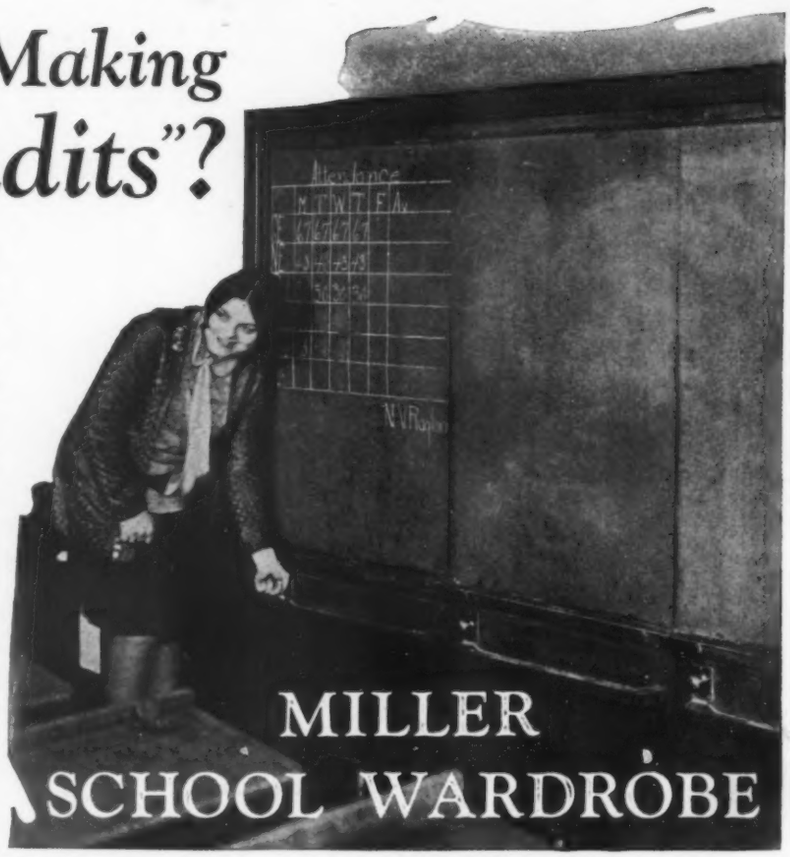

In school rooms not equipped with proper equipment for taking care of books and wraps, educators allow little boys and girls to be tempted during the most formative period of their lives! There is constant temptation to steal from the unlocked doors of ordinary cloak rooms and wardrobes. Even small children carry on petty pilfering when attractive trinkets, toys and playthings — as well as books and apparel—are so temptingly displayed.

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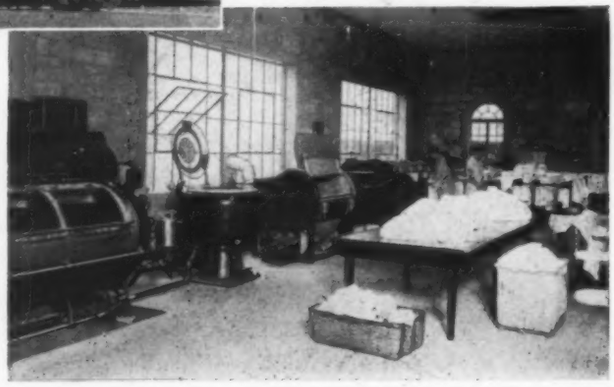

State Teachers' College's "American" laundry, which simplifies the handling of a large weekly washing and ironing.

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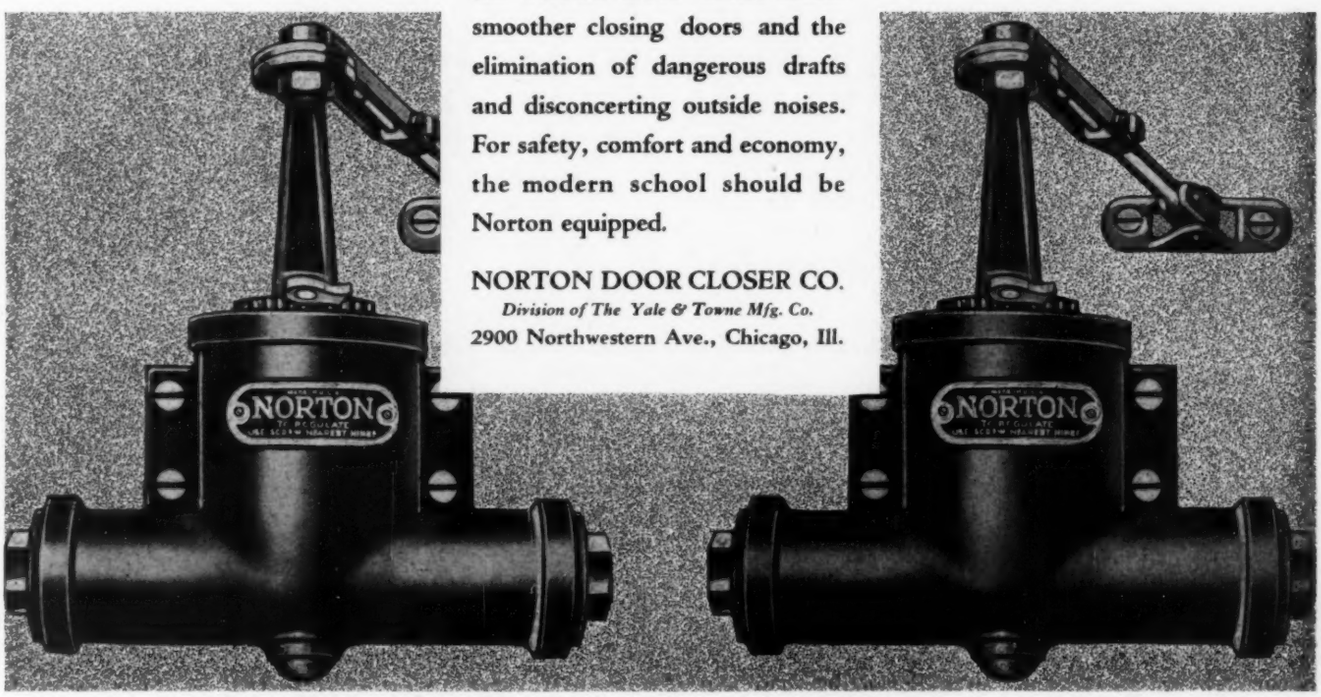

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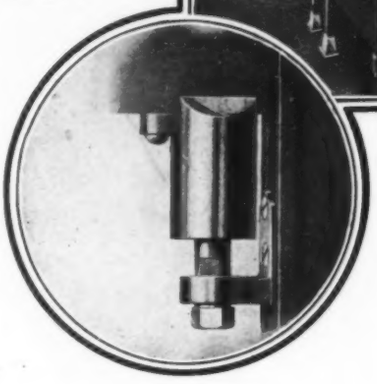

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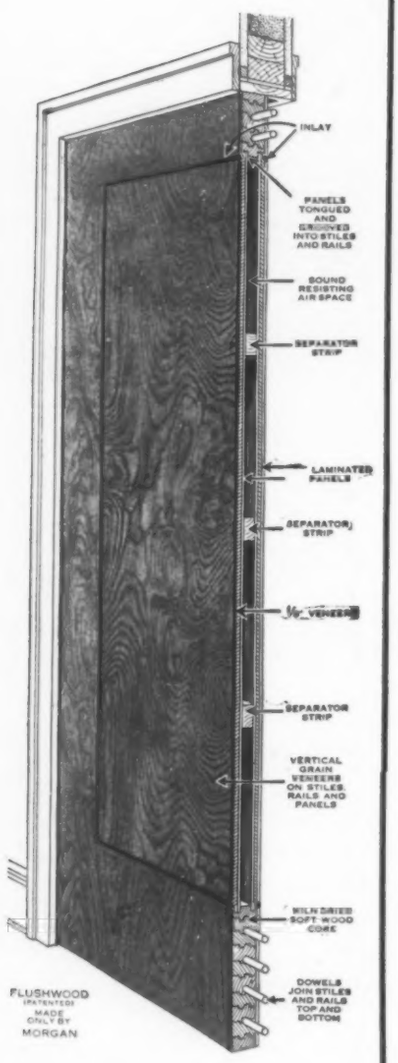
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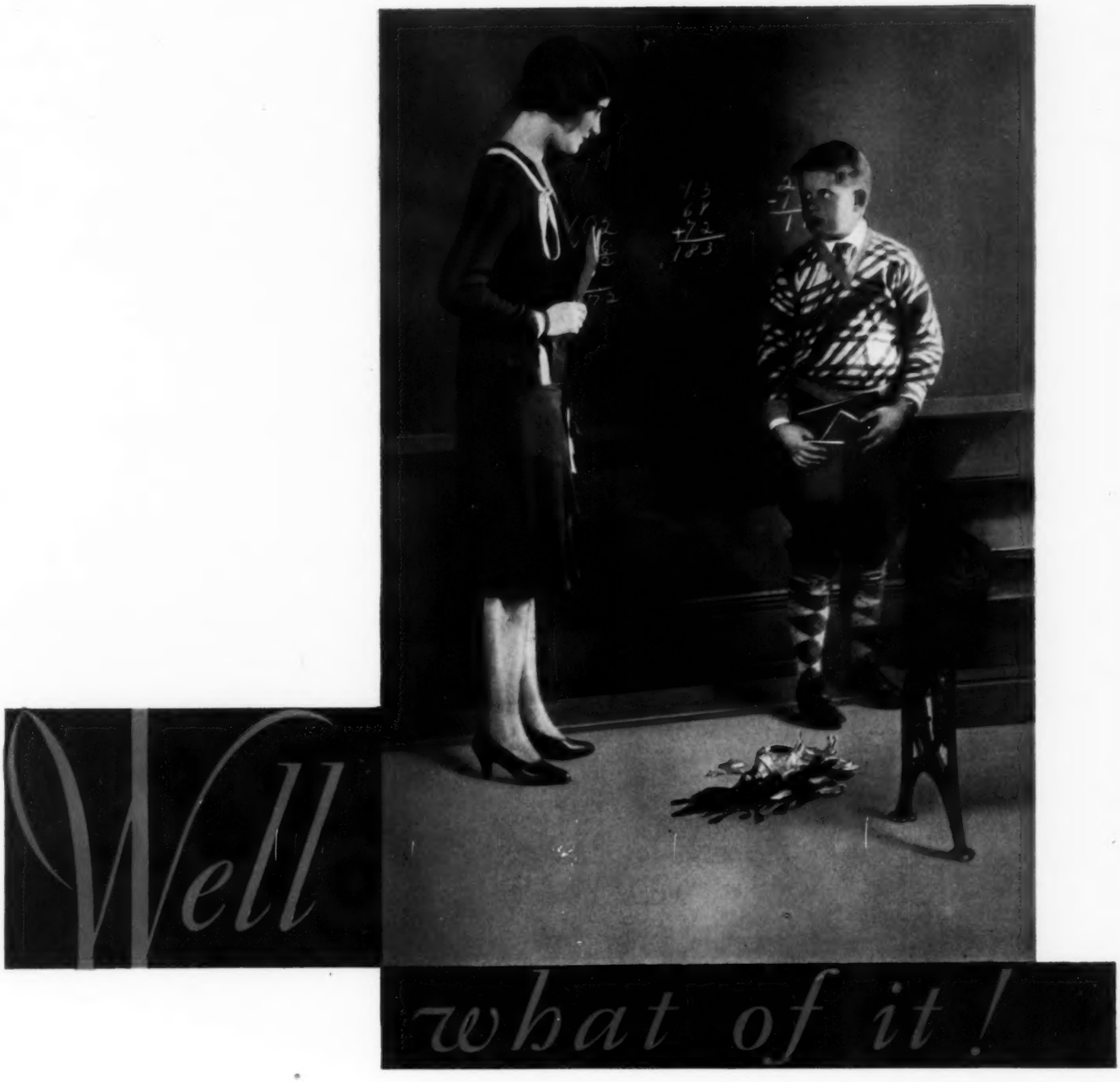

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(Continued on next page)

Kindergarten floors of *Sealex* Linoleums and *Sealex* Tiles, designed-to-order, will aid in game formations as well as give quietness and durability.

CHEER *and* COLOR *— in the children's rooms*

(Continued from preceding page)

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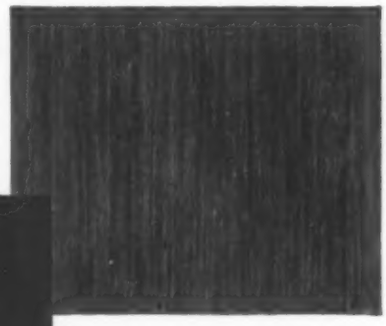
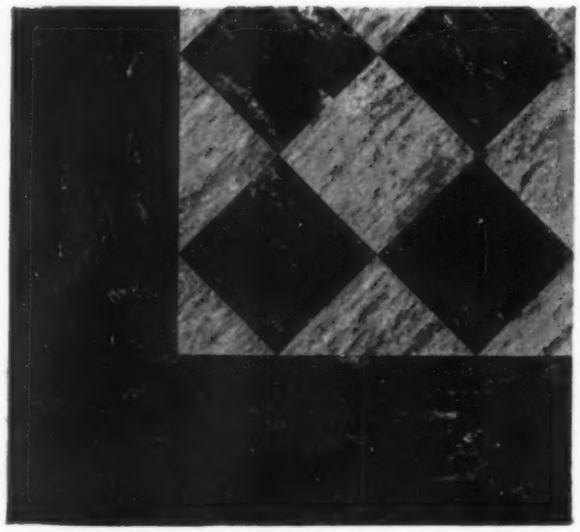


AT RIGHT
Sealex Jaspé Linoleum, Tan. This soft, two-toned effect is also obtainable in green, brown, dark gray and light gray.

AT LEFT
Green, obtainable in several grades of *Sealex* Battleship Linoleum and also in *Sealex* Treadlite Tiles. Many other solid colors are available.



This illustration shows how various colors may be assembled to order. *Sealex* Treadlite Tiles of Dark Sienna and Light Sienna are used here. A wide variety of colors Marble-ized and plain is available.

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At Right
Wagner Junior High,
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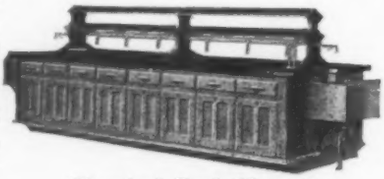

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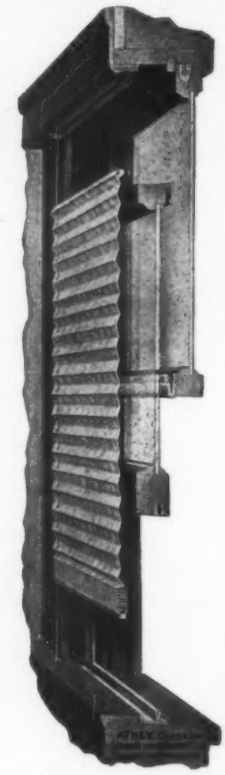

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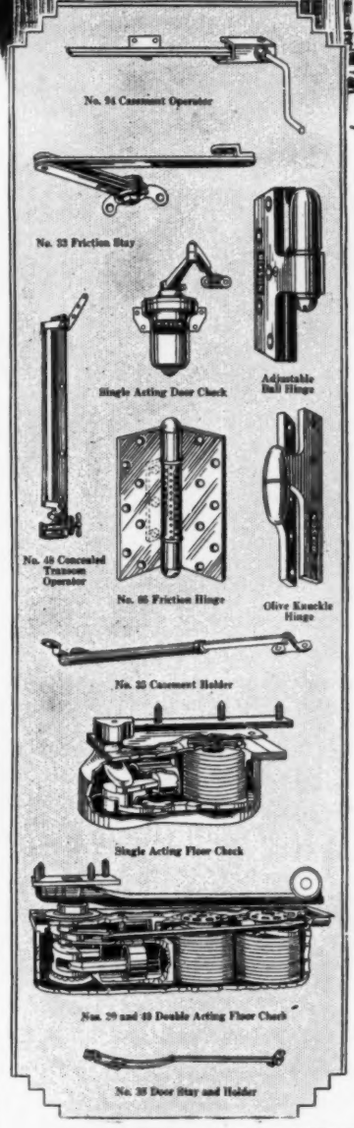
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NATION'S SCHOOLS
DEVOTED TO THE APPLICATION OF RESEARCH TO
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VOLUME III JUNE, 1929 NUMBER 6

How the Teaching Load Is Handled in State and Other Universities

Because of its importance, the problem of administering, computing and adjusting the teaching load has been made the basis of a study to which sixty institutions of higher learning contributed data

By FRED C. AYER, Professor of Educational Administration, University of Texas

THE administrative importance of the teaching load in representative institutions of higher learning, its present status and the computation and adjustment of the teaching load have been made the basis of a study that will be published in two parts in The NATION'S SCHOOLS.

The materials presented and the conclusions reached are based upon data supplied by thirty-two state and twenty-eight other universities, these including as a group practically all of the leading universities in the United States. In addition there is given a detailed time study of the work of all the instructors in a large state university. This, the first of the two articles, deals with the administrative importance of the teaching load and its present status.

The teaching load, or the official number of hours per week that teachers devote to the work of teaching, is an important factor in the administration of schools, elementary, secondary or advanced, because it is the best single measure we have of assigning teaching duties and computing teaching services. The teaching load has played a more conspicuous part in secondary than in higher education, but even in state and other universities it lies very near to the center of all effective educational planning. The truth of this assertion may be readily established when it is shown that four of the chief aspects of university administration are materially affected by considerations of the teaching load: (1) cost, (2) personnel administration, (3) educational efficiency and (4) educational publicity.

A direct relation exists between the size of the work load carried by individual instructors and the cost of university instruction. Owing to the recent rapid growth of student groups in the various universities of the United States, decided pressure has been placed upon many university presidents to administer teaching loads and other forms of work loads upon a basis that will reduce the average cost of instruction per student.

The chief factors that influence instructional costs are: the schedule of teaching salaries, the size of the classes and the weekly teaching load of individual instructors. How large a part the weekly teaching load plays financially is shown by the fact that increasing the average instructor's teaching hours from ten to fifteen per week makes it possible for a university to increase its carrying load 50 per cent. Combined with the size of classes, the teaching load dominates the field of financial expenditure.

University administrators who are in charge of the assignment of work loads to individual instructors encounter numerous difficulties because there exists a lack of understanding or agreement concerning what constitutes a basic work load for faculty members and what relation should exist between a basic teaching load and

other official university duties, such as committee work, student consultation and research. With due allowance for individual application, a basic uniformity in the methods of computing and adjusting teaching loads facilitates the successful assignment of duties to employees working under a common employment schedule.

As the teaching load is ordinarily considered the basic factor in the total assignment of university duties, it is essential, first of all, in personnel administration to possess accurate information concerning the actual work load attached to regular teaching duties. Inasmuch as the individual teaching loads of faculty members are frequently reduced because of certain nonteaching duties, it is essential also to know with some degree of accuracy the comparative severity of this supplementary work load.

TABLE 1—THE RELATIVE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER INSTRUCTOR IN THIRTY-TWO STATE UNIVERSITIES

Rank	*Students per Instructor*	*Number of Students*	*Number of Instructors*
High	28.7	7,260	253
Quartile[1]	18.4	3,221	175
Median	14.2	9,734	693
Quartile[2]	11.0	2,959	268
Low	5.9	1,119	189

The proper adjustment of teaching loads promotes educational efficiency. A too light total work load or an improper balance between teaching and other duties is inimical to the best interests of both the instructor and the university. On the other hand, an overburdened instructor cannot give the high quality of service demanded of university instruction and research. A suitable adjustment of the appropriate time that instructors are to devote to teaching, to committee work, to administrative duties, to research, to consultation with students and to other university duties, arranged to permit and encourage self-improvement and high professional service, is necessary to develop their most productive educational efficiency. This aspect of educational efficiency is all too frequently neglected in university administration.

Finally, there is the unfortunate administrative custom of referring to a university instructor's total work load in terms of the bare number of hours he teaches a week. This results in a distinct misconception and lack of appreciation on the part of the public as to the actual number of hours per week the average instructor devotes to his total official duties. One hour in the classroom in all probability represents three hours of supplementary outside work, the nature of which is seldom officially represented to the lay public. It, therefore, seems administratively important and desirable, both in fairness to the instructor and for the best interests of university publicity, to ascertain the facts and acquaint university patrons with the actual time load that is involved in the normal teaching load and in the supplementary duties attached to official membership in a university faculty.

In the four administrative problems that have been presented, the ratio of the number of faculty members to the number of students is an important index of the general work load situation. Tables 1 and 2 give a general view of the enrollment situation in the various state and other universities included in this study. It should be kept in mind in considering these tables that apparently there is considerable variation among the several universities in the methods used to compute the basic item, "number of instructors."

A study of Table 1 shows that a wide variation exists in the number of students per instructor in the thirty-two state universities represented, ranging from the low average of 5.9 students per instructor to the high average of 28.7 students per instructor. The complete data show that the great majority of the universities are clustered fairly close to the median. The median number of students per instructor in the median state university is 14.2, and one-half of the universities range between 11.0 and 18.4 students per instructor.

TABLE 2—THE RELATIVE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER INSTRUCTOR IN TWENTY-EIGHT NONSTATE UNIVERSITIES

Rank	*Students per Instructor*	*Number of Students*	*Number of Instructors*
High	41.3	9,510	230
Quartile[1]	14.6	600	41
Median	12.0	1,023	85
Quartile[2]	8.6	2,412	280
Low	5.3	5,332	1,007

Table 2, in a similar manner, reveals the comparative number of students and faculty members in the twenty-eight other universities. With the exception of one institution which outranks all the others with 41.3 students per instructor, the private universities tend to have fewer students per instructor than do the state universities. The median ratio of the state universities, 14.2 students per instructor, is 18 per cent larger than the median ratio of the private universities,

12.0 students per instructor. In neither group of universities does the comparative enrollment of an institution particularly influence the relative number of students per instructor. Apparently a large institution is as likely to have as few students for each instructor as a small institution.

One who attempts to answer the question, "What is the present teaching load in leading state and other universities?" runs into difficulties from the very beginning due to a lack of common standards in the terminology and methods of computation that prevail among the various universities of the country. He finds right at the outset that it is necessary to discriminate between the actual teaching load of a faculty member, which technically involves only the amount of time given directly to teaching, and his total work load, which includes both teaching and other specified university duties.

Load Standardization Progresses

Different universities at the present time are in various stages of advancement toward a formal standardization of practice in the computation and assignment of teaching loads and work loads. At the lowest stage of advance are a small group of universities, chiefly private, which, while perhaps assigning their own faculty work loads upon a fairly consistent but indefinite local plan, are in general opposed to accounting methods that tend toward the formal standardization of uniform practices from department to department.

A second group of universities are at an intermediate stage of advance toward formal standardization in the assignment of work loads. These universities have set up a definite "normal" weekly work load as a basis for general administrative computation and adjustment, but have done little or nothing in the way of formally differentiating between different ranks, departments or types of work. Six institutions, for example, report the instructor's basic work load as fifteen teaching hours.

Universities in a third group have made more or less progress in setting up prescriptive work standards that apply discriminatingly to different types of work and workers. One state university, for example, prescribes a weekly teaching load of six to eight hours for deans, department heads and professors, eight to twelve hours for associate professors and assistant professors and twelve to fifteen hours for instructors.

As standardization increases among these three groups of universities, the deans, departmental heads and others who stipulate or adjust the work loads of the various faculty members under their jurisdiction tend to use less and less of their own discretion in making assignments, and conform more and more to definite and fixed standards based upon known factors of rank, difficulty of work and actual expenditure of time.

One point of practically universal agreement is that the work loads of university instructors are ordinarily assigned on a weekly basis. This means that a number of hours or units of work are stipulated to be performed each week during a given term or semester. The actual hourage that goes to make up this weekly work load, however, is computed and totaled in a number of different ways. The total weekly work load of an instructor is usually stated in terms of the number of hours he teaches per week, but there is an increasing tendency to use methods of computation that take all of the instructor's working time and activities into account.

In attempting to generalize on the present so-called teaching load in state and other universities it is necessary to take into account three chief forms of accounting: (1) the actual teaching load, (2) the official work load and (3) the total time load.

The teaching load means the officially recognized and stipulated number of hours per week that an instructor gives in scheduled classroom instruction. It includes time in the classroom or laboratory only and does not include time spent in preparation, in grading papers or in keeping office hours. The teaching load for instructors in the different state universities of the United States ranges from six to sixteen hours and is based on the time assumption that one hour in class calls for from two to three hours of work outside of the classroom.

Methods Most Commonly Used

The teaching load is the most common method of designating faculty work loads. It is easily computed and applies readily to different teaching situations, but is faulty in that it excludes other standard types of university work, such as committee work, official research, supervision of theses, office work and other duties.

The official work load means the total number of officially recognized and stipulated hours per week that a member of the faculty is scheduled to give to all of his regular university duties, including teaching, administrative work, committee work, thesis supervision and assigned research. The official work load is now generally recognized by university administrative officers, either directly or indirectly, in assigning, computing and reporting faculty work loads. Although the teaching load as such may be the dominant basis,

TABLE 3—STANDARD WEEKLY TEACHING LOADS OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN FOURTEEN STATE UNIVERSITIES ACCORDING TO RANK

Rank of Load	*Deans*	*Dept. Heads*	*Profs.*	*Assoc. Profs.*	*Asst. Profs.*	*Instructors*
High	14.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0
Quartile[1]	9.0	13.5	14.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
Median	8.0	12.0	13.5	13.5	14.0	14.0
Average	7.3	11.4	12.3	13.0	13.3	13.6
Quartile[3]	6.0	9.0	10.5	11.0	12.5	12.0
Low	0.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0

everything considered, the official work load is undoubtedly the best measure of the instructor's work load for general administrative purposes. The official work load is frequently expressed in terms of teaching load hours. For example, a dean's official work load may be set at twelve teaching load hours, six of which he carries by teaching six hours, and six of which he carries as administrative duties.

What Is Total Time Load?

The total time load means the total number of hours per week an instructor spends in all duties and activities that are in any way connected with his official position, such as preparation for classes, teaching, grading papers, committee work, personal research, writing for publication and public service. The total time load is not ordinarily used in assigning work to instructors as it is too variable to be easily prescribed in advance, but it is frequently used by university administrators in questionnaire forms that attempt to check the amount of work actually performed during a given period.

Let us now inquire more directly concerning the size of the so-called teaching load as it appears in the various universities of the United States. The term "so-called teaching load," is used because the published teaching load frequently involves duties other than teaching. It is, however, by all odds the most common method of indicating and assigning faculty work loads. The great majority of replies to the questionnaire that furnishes the basis of this study reported faculty work loads in terms of the general teaching load.

In addition to a number of universities that have standard work loads but do not distinguish between ranks, there are fourteen state universities and thirteen nonstate universities that report definite and distinct standard teaching loads for each of the several ranks of the educational staff. As these institutions represent what appears to be the conventional practice in the quantitative assignment of teaching loads, it will be profitable to examine the main features of their practices. For this purpose the reported data are presented in Tables 3 and 4 which show the main tendencies in the assignment of standard teaching loads in representative universities of the United States.

Table 3 exhibits the high, low, average, median and quartile teaching loads in fourteen state universities for the six most common ranks of instructors—deans, departmental heads, professors, associate professors, assistant professors and instructors. It may be seen from Table 3 that there is a general increase in the size of the weekly loads from higher ranks to lower. This is manifest at the high, low and interquartile levels, but is significantly shown in the average teaching loads which increase regularly from rank to rank as follows: deans, 7.3 hours; departmental heads, 11.4 hours; professors, 12.3 hours; associate professors, 13.0 hours; assistant professors, 13.3 hours; instructors, 13.6 hours.

It should be noted that the teaching loads of

TABLE 4—STANDARD WEEKLY TEACHING LOADS OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN TWELVE NONSTATE UNIVERSITIES

Size of Load	*Deans*	*Dept. Heads*	*Profs.*	*Assoc. Profs.*	*Asst. Profs.*	*Instructors*
High	12.0	16.0	16.0	18.0	18.0	18.0
Average	7.2	10.9	12.8	13.2	13.9	14.3
Low	0.0	7.0	9.0	9.0	10.0	10.0

the high and low teachers vary considerably from the average load. The teaching loads of deans vary from 0 to 14 hours; of professors, from 6 to 16 hours; of associate professors, from 7 to 16 hours; of assistant professors, from 8 to 16 hours; of instructors, from 9 to 16 hours.

There are two chief theoretical considerations that underlie the decreasing size of teaching loads from lower to higher ranks: first, that the higher ranks teach correspondingly more advanced and difficult subjects; second, that the amount of supplementary time given to committee, administrative and other noninstructional duties gradually increases with the advance of departmental rank from instructor to dean. Studies of actual time expenditure bear out both of these theories.

Table 4 exhibits the high, low and average teaching loads in twelve nonstate universities for the same six ranks of instructors. It is evident that the same general conditions prevail in these institutions that prevail in state universities with respect to the assignment of teaching loads. Again we find the teaching assignment increasing gradually from higher to lower ranks. The average assignments, for example, are as follows: deans, 7.2 hours; departmental heads, 10.9 hours; professors, 12.8 hours; associate professors, 13.2 hours; assistant professors, 13.9 hours; instructors, 14.3 hours. The numerical quantities represented are in general similar to those in state universities except that the assignment in the nonstate universities is a little smaller for the higher ranks, such as deans and heads of departments, and a little larger for the lower ranks, such as assistant professors and instructors. It should be added that local studies indicate that there is considerable variation in practice between the theoretical teaching load and the amounts of teaching that instructors actually do.

It is a matter of general belief that teaching loads are lighter in large than in small universities. Our data are incomplete and somewhat contradictory in this respect. Insofar as the twenty-six universities in the foregoing group are concerned, the factor of size is of considerable importance in determining the teaching load in the fourteen state universities, but it appears to exert little influence on the amount of the teaching load in the twelve nonstate universities. When the state universities are arranged according to size it is found that the larger universities tend to have the smaller teaching loads.

Table 5 is arranged to reveal this general tendency. The fourteen universities are divided into three groups, large, medium and small, and the average teaching loads are given for each of the six instructional ranks. There seems to be no particular difference between the small and medium sized universities in the assignment of teaching loads, but there is a decided reduction of the size of the teaching loads in the larger universities.

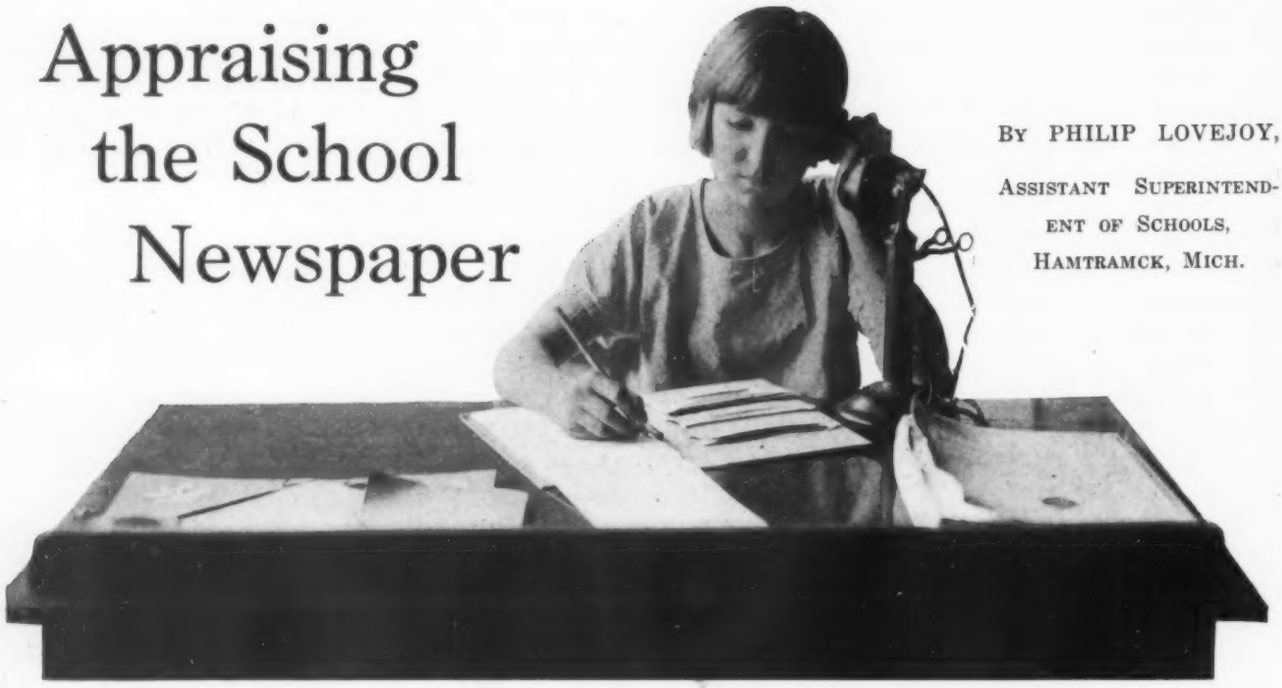
Bearing in mind the presence of certain minor errors in the method of calculation, the teaching load in the large universities as compared to the medium universities runs as follows: 4.5 hours for deans in large universities to 9.0 hours for deans in medium universities, or a teaching load 50 per cent less in the large universities; 8.0 hours for departmental heads in large universities to 13.0 hours in medium, or 38 per cent less in the large universities; 9.0 hours for professors in large universities to 14.0 in medium, or 36 per cent less in the large universities; 10.0 hours for associate professors in large universities to 14.5 hours in medium, or 31 per cent less in the large universities; 11.0 hours for assistant professors in large universities to 15.0 in medium, or 27 per cent less in the large universities; 13.0 hours for instructors in large universities to 15.0 in medium universities, or 13 per cent less in the large universities.

These figures show that the teaching load is less for every rank in the larger universities than it is in the medium or small universities, and that the higher the rank the greater is the discrepancy in the respective teaching load. On the whole, therefore, concerning the standard teaching load in state universities it may be said that the size of the teaching load decreases as the rank of the faculty member becomes higher and as the enrollment of the university becomes larger.

TABLE 5—AVERAGE WEEKLY TEACHING LOADS OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN FOURTEEN STATE UNIVERSITIES ACCORDING TO SIZE OF THE UNIVERSITY

Type of University	*Deans*	*Dept. Heads*	*Profs.*	*Assoc. Profs.*	*Asst. Profs.*	*Instructors*
Large U's	4.5	8.0	9.0	10.0	11.0	13.0
Medium U's	9.0	13.0	14.0	14.5	15.0	15.0
Small U's	9.0	12.0	14.0	14.5	14.0	13.5

Appraising the School Newspaper



By PHILIP LOVEJOY,
Assistant Superintendent of Schools,
Hamtramck, Mich.

OBJECTIVE appraisal is the only fair and adequate means of drawing conclusions regarding the efficacy of any particular activity in the public schools. For many years the school newspaper has been on the ascendency as far as size and number of copies are concerned. Large sums of money are spent in preparing these papers. In one high school having 3,000 pupils more than $2,500 was spent on the school paper in a single year. In large schools the amount may be much more while in the smaller schools a correspondingly less amount will be used.

In any event the money is not usually appropriated by the board of education but comes from the pockets of the fathers and mothers, via the children. This then becomes one of the extras for which the American public school gets more or less notoriety. Because of this accusation it behooves school authorities to make certain that their school papers are a worth while enterprise giving valuable experience.

"Share the Sidewalk" is the valuable lesson in courtesy taught by this school newspaper picture.

In order to find a basis for measuring the value of school papers, an appraisal score card has been developed. With this card it should be possible to take any paper and within thirty minutes make a rather complete analysis of it.

Three main divisions occur on this score card, namely, management, material and mechanics. To the first two has been allotted thirty-five points each, while to the last has been assigned thirty points. These were arbitrary assignments with a view to having the final result on the basis of the usual and understandable 100 points.

Within each of the three divisions several subdivisions have been made. To each of these subdivisions points have been assigned, varying in accordance with their importance. Columns have been provided with a percentage mark as a heading to each. One may mark the point at issue by a check and have a final average percentage, or

better still, one may mark in the proper column the percentage of the standard that has been set. For instance, under "supervision," to which a standard of five points has been allotted for the "perfect" paper, one may decide on careful study that the paper in question is worth three points. These three should be placed in the 51 to 70 per cent column. In other words the paper is between 51 and 70 per cent efficient in this one particular item.

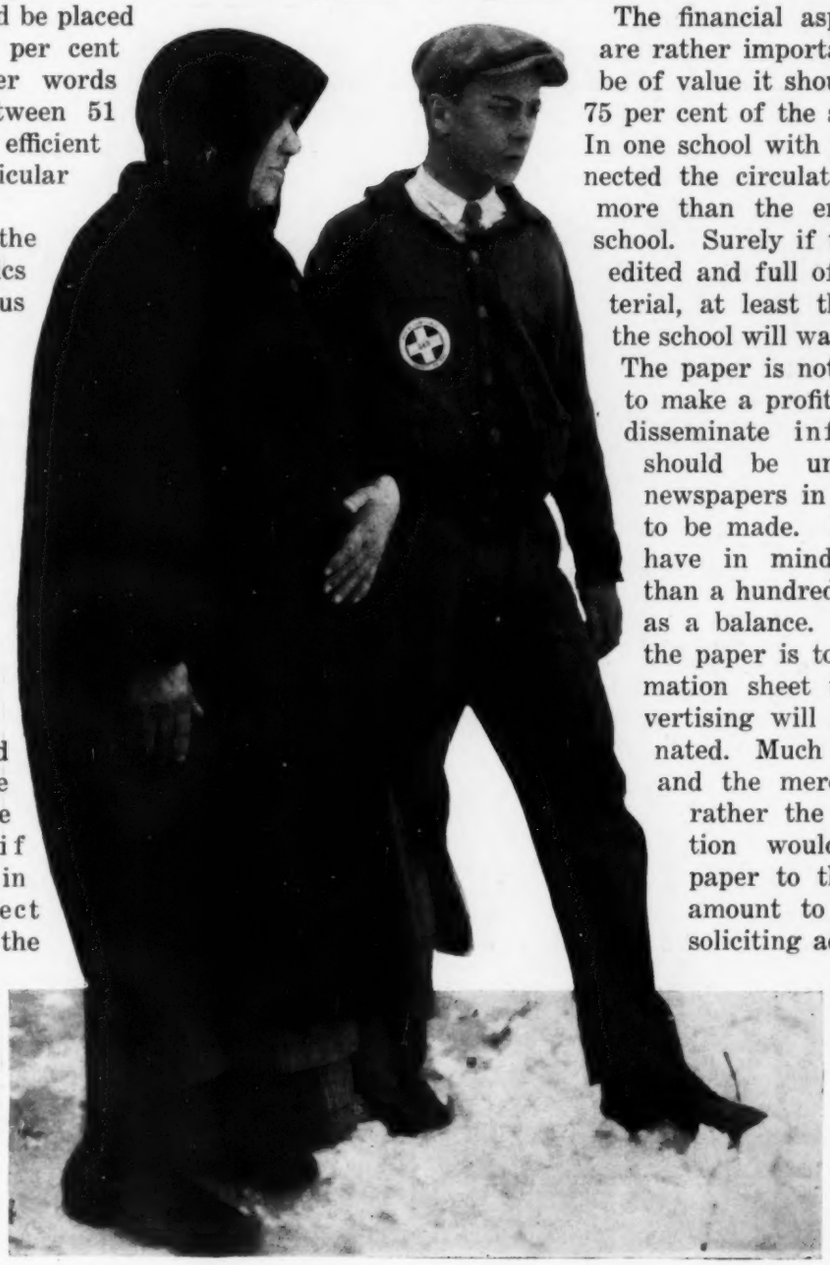
So much for the general mechanics of the card. Let us now review the items.

Surely if a school paper is to be worth anything to the pupils as a basis of training the editing must be done by the pupils. This gives training in discrimination as to what to print and what to omit. The English must be correct for if papers appear in which imperfect English occurs the immediate impression is given that the academic work of the school is of an inferior quality.

In order that more pupils may receive this training it has been suggested that revolving staffs be appointed. Thus we have at least two staffs, each responsible for every other issue, or, better still, four staffs, each responsible for every fourth issue. Many pupils thus get practical training in journalism and also become better acquainted with the proceedings in the school. Furthermore, if the paper is edited by pupils, language will be on a pupil level, and hence will be understood by both pupils and adults. Both will enjoy reading such a paper.

"Supervision" merely suggests that the faculty should determine the policy as to the type of news that is to be printed. This does not imply that there should be a system of censorship and but five points has been awarded to "supervision."

The financial aspects of a paper are rather important for if it is to be of value it should reach at least 75 per cent of the school population. In one school with which I was connected the circulation reached fifty more than the enrollment of the school. Surely if the paper is well edited and full of interesting material, at least three quarters of the school will want to have a copy. The paper is not issued in order to make a profit. It is issued to disseminate information and should be unlike commercial newspapers in that no profit is to be made. By "no profit" I have in mind something less than a hundred dollars per year as a balance. Furthermore, if the paper is to be a real information sheet the so-called advertising will have been eliminated. Much of this is charity and the merchant would far rather the board of education would subsidize the paper to the extent of the amount to be obtained by soliciting advertisements.



Interest in traffic regulation on school streets can be stimulated by the use of pictures in the school publication.

The main differences between a newspaper and a magazine are the frequency of publication and the size of the sheet. In this case we are talking about a school newspaper and hence there should be at least two issues a month and preferably four. In some schools this frequency of publication might serve as too great a drainage on the school treasury. However it seems that a slightly cheaper paper issued more frequently would be a greater morale builder than a more pretentious one issued at infrequent intervals.

The subheadings under "material" are but two in

An Appraisal Score Card for Analyzing a School Paper

Topics and Divisions	*Standard*	*Either per cent of standard or a check mark*				
		50% or less	*51% 70*	*71% 80*	*81% 90*	*91% 100*
Management (35)						
1. Editing: By students. English must be correct. A large revolving student staff correlated to school departments. Written on student level.	15					
2. Supervision: General type of information to be disseminated determined by school authorities.	5					
3. Financial: Circulation at least 75 per cent of school. Nonprofit, printed in school as project, if possible. Preferably no advertising. Student price not greater than 5 cents per issue.	10					
4. Frequency: Not less than bimonthly. Preferably weekly. Some large schools may have daily.	5					
Material (35)						
1. Function: To stimulate students and parents to realization of educational conditions and needs of the school and to direct attention to the type of activities engaged in.	10					
2. Serves as a project in school activities through which pupils by cooperative endeavor achieve and thereby are educated.	10					
3. Contents: Written entirely by students. Factual, of interest to students. Constructive, educational viewpoint. Current news interest. Must be proof read accurately and corrections made.	15					
Mechanics (30)						
1. Headlines: A news type, condensed and expanded to fit; regular headline schedule adopted which uses uc and lc, not all caps.[1]						
Body: Ionic 7 on 8 unleaded preferable, or 6½ pt. Ionic on 7. Columns 12 to 12½ or 13 ems.	20					
Advertising: Layout according to best standards.[2]						
Dress: Pages must be well balanced and neatly spaced.						
2. Size:						
Maximum pages for size as listed	2					
3. Paper: 80 to 100# English Finish Book. Not a magazine paper.	3					
4. Illustrations: 15 to 25 per cent of space; cuts, 100 line zinc or etchings but conditioned on effect desired. Should feature child activity in sufficient detail to tell the story. Linoleum block cuts when possible.	5					

	A	B	C
width	4 column	5 column	6 column
length	12 inches	16 inches	20 inches
	8 pages	12 pages	16 pages

[1] Newspaper Make-up of Headlines, Ridder.
[2] Typography of Advertising, Trezise, 1921.

number yet they receive the same point allotment as the first major division. This is because the material side of the paper is the most important and under material, function is the more essential quality to be studied. Unless a paper stimulates pupils and parents to a realization of the educational conditions of the school it has been of slight value to the community, either in or out of school. While humorous columns may be of interest to some pupils, school papers must set an example of the value of conservative journalism with a minimum amount of so-called "jazz" copy.

Furthermore, unless the paper serves as a project in the school activities through which pupils by cooperative endeavor become better educated, the paper has not served its highest purpose nor has the time devoted to it been wisely spent.

As to contents, let it be stated that the paper is written for the pupils and by the pupils. It is a pupil paper. Some excellent papers appear in certain sections of the country that reveal the master hand of a faculty member in the headlines and in the text matter. Pupils are receiving training in writing and they are likely to write on a level that will be understood by their colleagues. If left to their own initiative they are very apt to produce a valuable piece of work.

Under "mechanics" we have placed four subheadings and under several of these have been placed minor subheadings. Most of these are self-explanatory. Here exists a real chance for specific instruction in dress, good taste and neatness. Proper proportion may be emphasized and the best papers of the country studied as examples. Certainly the latest developments in legible type that reduces eye strain should be utilized in the school paper. Surely the best advertising layouts and types should be employed. Let us have a mechanically perfect paper if possible but let us be sure that the text is worthy of the excellent typography.

Another example of demonstrating courtesy by means of photographs of popular pupils.

Far too few of the school papers publish pictures and when they do, the pictures are often poor from an educational standpoint. Child activity needs to be featured for after all the school exists not for the teacher or the board of education but for the child. It is he who is learning self-direction and self-control. Educational pictures may well be paid for by the board of education under their public relations appropriation.

A Disease of School Boards

A board is a board; that's clear enough. But when each member acts as though he were a little board all by himself, it's a disease

By WILLIAM McANDREW: Under them, fifty-three years

IF ANYBODY read an effort entitled "School Boards From Below" which I imposed on this magazine in response to a request for a contribution, he may remember that I suggested that an imperfection often appeared in the generous and patriotic services of boards of education on account of a common defect of human nature, the weakness of being led by personal feeling instead of by the abstract conception of public good. That sounds rhetorical, but you know what I mean.

In his private business, the ordinary board member is accustomed to doing favors that cost him much, little or nothing but the effort. The every-day American has learned that business is helped by courtesy. He will cheerfully write a letter of introduction for you or perform any one of a long list of personal services. He likes to feel that he has made a wide circle of friends. When he is appointed to membership on a school board, this circle widens enormously. His friends and the important people in whose favor he would like to bask, have acquaintances whom they would like to accommodate. The temptation to win greater popularity, the sense of power in being able to say, "I made him," "I put her where she is," are too alluring to be resisted by the majority of school-board members.

A number of years ago the Chicago school system gave a dinner to a board member of long standing. He was a beautiful, clean-living man, unstinting in the time he devoted to schools. In his speech his kindly eyes beamed as he told us, "No widow, no orphan, no woman in distress ever appealed to me but I got her a position in the school system." Mayor Hylan's account of his putting into office an old and blind benefactor who had once helped him, glows with kindliness. Magnanimous princes used to do this. There is something touching in the act of gratifying one's desire to be generous by touching the taxpayer for it. It takes a self-denial approaching heroism for a board member to turn down an appeal to his chivalry, his defense of the weak and the down-trodden.

The crop of heroes is not large enough to fill all the board vacancies. Accordingly the law has taken away from boards and superintendents the responsibility of appointing teachers and has set up a competitive examination system. The New York Maxwell's varied services for good schools had nothing superior to his rigorous and impersonal management of the examination board. But the persistent importunities of board members and of city officials which are directed against examination systems in New York, in Chicago and perhaps elsewhere, create among applicants an almost incurable belief that the examination system is crooked and can by proper pressure be bent in the direction of a favorite.

In Chicago we had two of the stiffest and sturdiest men you could find anywhere in charge of examinations and of the issue of certificates. If anyone should have had the duty of protecting these guardians of the entrance gates to teaching, it should have been members of the school board,

Isolating the Germ

NO ACTION for libel has been filed against us since the publication of William McAndrew's "School Boards From Below." We venture another speculation from his pen. From two generations of boards he collects cases to reach by induction the isolation of a germ, which he presents as the cause of the most common disease infecting the general health of boards of directors.

Next month we shall risk the publication of his final article, "A Serum for School Boards." Mr. McAndrew warns us that we are not to endorse anything in his offering. He says these things must stand or fall on reason, rather than on authority.

the supreme educational influence in the city, the sworn defenders of American principles of fair play. But the only serious menace to the examination system in Chicago, when I was there, was certain board members who were church members, club members, desirous of personal respect and scornful of many kinds of dishonesty. They attempted the dismissal of the fine old Roman who headed the examination system. The main charge was that he had been discourteous to a board member who tried to push a relative into a position.

From what I have been able to observe in school affairs, may I say I think Payne was right. Love of power, whether the board member or the superintendent has the disease, plays the devil with the democratic ideal.

Wicked Jokers

In the New York and Chicago boards, the rôle of chivalrous defender of womanhood against oppression drew to its claimant the pet name, "Teachers' Friend." Some charmer with her tongue in her cheek and in the presence of an audience that enjoys the joke will christen a board member in an after-dinner speech, the teachers' friend. The compliment tastes sweet and is swallowed whole. After a bit, the recipient learns that he is being dubbed with the new name in much the same way as "Little Lord Fauntleroy" is applied. He resents it.

Frank Wilsey, who put a generation of work into the record of the New York board, who secured adoption of the resolution making the salary of high-school teachers of cooking, physical training and kindred subjects, equal to the pay of language and mathematics instructors, was given a dinner by the advantaged ones. In his response he said, "I know you will not try to kid me into a declaration that I have any particular love for you or your subject. I'm only for the American idea of equality. I appreciate the good dinner you have given me. For the Lord's sake, don't spoil it by calling me the teachers' friend."

The rôle of knight errant, protector of pedagogic womanhood, harks back to some imaginary feudal time in schools, when the superintendent was supposed to be grinding the faces of teachers. There is a myth pervading the Chicago schools that Edward Cooley was a tyrant of this sort. The number of unhysterical observers who give him credit for more progressive and lasting improvements in the system than are due to any other superintendent is respectable. Every forward move that Maxwell made in New York, except his magnificent improvement of teachers' pay, was given the bad names of oppression, tyranny, Czarism, by enough board members to carry weight.

Teachers, like the rest of us, need a friend. If school boards as boards, are friendly to teaching and see that it is paid something near to what it is worth, they, the trustees, will more notably discharge their duty than by endless engagement with individual complaints. The most formidably organized societies of teachers in large cities are due to the neglect of boards who could have adjusted the pay of the teaching force along with the wages of the cleaners and laborers whose depreciated dollars the boards repaired.

Of course, as a little observation will show, there are murmurings that the board adjuster is never going to be able to still. To a new trustee the hardships in the system seem scandalous. But one has only to recall that the amount of lamentation in every organization, in banks, in stores, in opera companies, even in churches, is never ending. The glorious and ever conquering army of Napoleon, Guarard reminds us, was a collection of devoted grumblers. The mental hygienists keep telling us that the way to increase the neurasthenic distress of members of organizations is for their boards of directors to attempt personally to alleviate individual distress. Let the governing body, says Parker, assure all signers that immunity from reprisal will be assured. Let the board invite a written bill of particulars. Why not? It doesn't cure the trouble, but it does less harm to everybody than the break-up of a board into personal physicians of a system's ills. Anyhow, every superintendent can tell you that the almost universal spirit of teachers in the classroom, where it really matters, is that of geniality, good humor, high spirits, jollity and cheer. This sounds trite, no doubt, because every observer knows it is true.

Help That Hinders

Taking the rôle of teachers' friend develops weird twists in the conception of the duty of a public official. It shows curiously in the case of the teacher who cannot or will not make good. So universal was the belief in New York schools that the board would protect poor service that the percentage of teachers rated as unsatisfactory was an amazingly small part of 1 per cent. According to the record, New York teachers were successes almost universally.

The absurdity of it so affected Maxwell that he secured a statute giving the superintendent power to cancel any teaching certificate within the first three years of employment. The appeals to him by board members to retain unfortunates in the

service were almost universal. I know of no case where a board member pushed for the exclusion of an incompetent teacher, except in the instance reported by Superintendent Cooley, in Chicago. An unfortunate woman who had failed in various posts in the system was retained until it occurred to Cooley to transfer her to the class in which the child of an influential member of the board was enrolled.

No polite inclination to avoid personal offense to board trustees can justify omitting to refer to the scandalous dishonesty of preferring the interest of an employee to that of successive series of sixty or seventy parents per term who have no powerful friend to protest against the injustice to their children. In systems large enough to use it, the utterly abominable practice of transferring the useless teacher to the poorer districts in which parents do not know enough to object, is a familiar and infamous travesty on American equality, practiced by subservient superintendents with an appetite for peace.

Teacher Entitled to Trial by Jury

The argument for retention of the power of dismissal in the hands of laymen is that it entitles the teacher to trial by jury. In all but four of the numerous board trials, I have noted that the reporting officer and not the teacher was chiefly tried. He was not given a jury of his peers but a tribunal that showed itself unable to understand even the common terms of teaching. It was a jury which, while professing the virtue of unprejudiced approach, had carefully avoided making any preliminary enquiry of those who knew the teacher's work. It not only had not forbidden but had encouraged statements before the trial from the employee whose service was singled out because of its poor quality. This is common practice. No hospital trustee would think of employing it. No board of directors of any production concern uses it. The lay members of such boards will not presume to decide professional questions by such burlesques as school-board trials for the most part are.

Between the cruel injustice practiced by superintendents with too much power and the contemptible subjection of children by school boards to the pitiable waste of poor instruction, there must be found a way to require of both board and superintendent an adherence to a high degree of loyalty to the public good in place of the medieval appetite for power.

All analogies in the cases of hospitals, post offices, telephone companies, railways and other organizations for public service, together with the great bulk of those stupidities that have become too well known as "school fights," indicate that less board of education power and more superintendent responsibility are indicated. Give him too much and you spoil him with conceit, with royal prerogative, and encourage those subject to his direction to generate an adulation tending to make a Canute of him. There must be a check on the superintendency. The trouble in giving the board of local laymen so much authority lies in the fact that they are laymen and are local.

New York State puts a curb on both agencies. The state commissioner may and does restrain school boards. He is a professional educator. He is available at once for appeals. It is not necessary for an abuse to fester until a respectable body of citizens, urged by the smell, collects funds, employs counsel and brings legal action. The state officer is away from the hectic atmosphere of the city where the school fight is rife. He can give the case the calm consideration it needs. He has shown himself, in the case of each of the three last occupants of the post, usually free from political pressure.

School boards are better in New York State since their more absolute power was made reviewable by one whose business is to know educational theories and practices. A board in New York may not, unless some agency other than itself judges its reasons to be good, remove a superintendent until his term expires. But, having been properly thwarted by a superintendent and prevented by him and by the appellate officer from doing what those two deem contrary to the public good, a board of education can and does take advantage by turning out such a superintendent at the end of his term, even when, as in the Ettinger case (New York City), his administration has distinctly bettered the schools.

Good Service Goes Unrewarded

Educational administration is thus anomalous as compared with managing a railroad or a light plant or other public utility, in that the superintendent is unable to retain his position through good service to the public, through economic and profit-making management and direction.

There can be no doubt that control by our present general type of lay boards is responsible for this wasteful situation. It is a disease. It breaks out in school boards in all parts of the country. It is preventable. The interests of communities require that school boards should not have the power to dismiss a superintendent unless an agency more capable of judging professional service than laymen are shall pronounce his service poor. This is the extension of tenure where it is most needed.

Relating Teaching Procedures to Actual Life Problems

Schools are seeking to develop in youth the latent possibilities of human character so that the larger life may be cultivated in service to community, state and nation

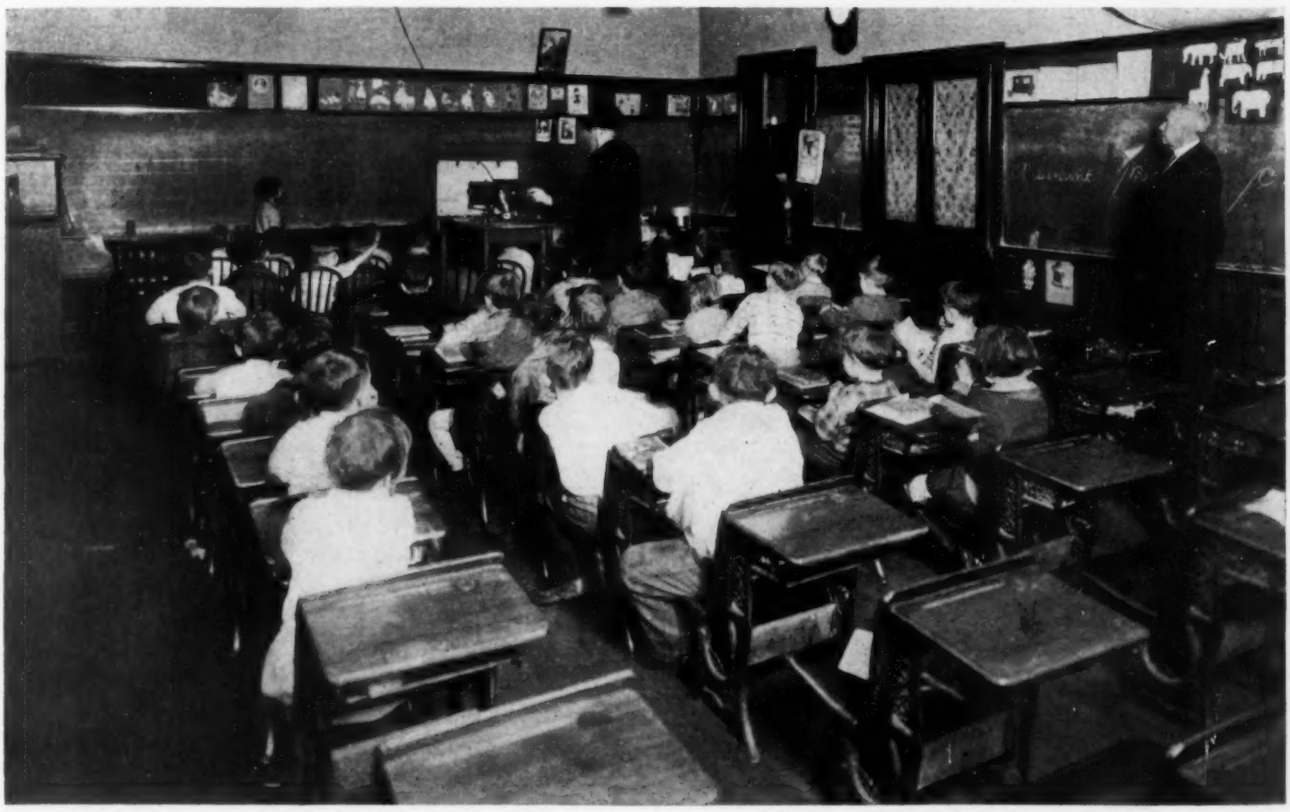
By ESTON V. TUBBS, Director of Curriculum, Chicago Public Schools

ONE OF the outstanding developments in education during the past ten years has been curriculum revision. Marked changes are taking place in our economic and social life and educators are putting forth every effort to keep in step with these developments. They are bringing to bear upon this important problem the best thought and foresight they possess.

The education of youth is one of the greatest responsibilities delegated by society to any group of individuals. It is no mere truism to say that the future of our country lies largely in the hands of the teachers in our schools. The men and women of to-morrow will be the product of what is taught in our schools to-day. The content and character of the courses of study in our schools are therefore of primary importance and value.

During recent years, the tempo of modern life in the United States has been tremendously increased. The telephone, the automobile, the radio, the airplane and the movies have brought significant changes in American life that only a few discern.

A short time ago Thomas Edison was quoted as having said that intelligence had been developed through the use of mechanical inventions to a surprising degree during the last few years. The incandescent light has increased the length of the working day for both mental and manual laborers. Production has been greatly increased as a result and, as Mr. Edison believes, our wits have been sharpened. He himself sleeps only four



Silent reading lesson in elementary school by use of stereopticon, which alternately shows a picture and directive sentences based upon different outstanding points in the picture.

hours out of twenty-four. He takes the position that our sleep allowance should be further reduced as he believes that too much sleep produces mental dullness.

Mr. Edison is of the opinion that, "The motion picture, no matter what one may think of the pictures presented, is the greatest quickener of brain action we have ever had. Everyone is now trained to follow and remember the scenes and keep them coherent. Without training, these scenes would be only a confused jumble. This is even more apparent in the titles. The average audience to-day, and we work on the average, grasps a title in somewhat less than half the time that formerly we considered necessary. To-day a title of from twelve to fifteen words is shown in about twelve seconds and is understood by 95 per cent of the audience without effort. Thirty years ago only 10 per cent of the audience would have understood it."

Must Respond to Outside Progress

Our schools, if they are to perform the service for which they are maintained, must always be responsive to the developments and progress that are taking place in the life outside the schools. Mechanical inventions during the last twenty-five years have changed tremendously the course of human events. Investigation and research in the fields of psychology and education have added greatly to our knowledge of the things that need to be taught in our schools and how they should be taught. Just as we have passed from the horse and buggy type of transportation to the airplane, so, too, have methods of teaching changed.

Perhaps one of the most notable examples of this is to be found in the teaching of reading. Most adults of the present time were taught to read by the A, B, C, or alphabet method. Horace Mann, one of America's foremost educators, regarded this method as a great obstacle to learning and advocated that the "word" method be substituted. The improvement that followed the introduction of this method of teaching reading was of vast importance in producing much more efficient readers than was possible by the alphabet method. Within recent years we have been training boys and girls to read by recognizing groups of words rather than single words. The children in our schools at the present time are unquestionably more efficient in their reading than those who preceded them. Only a few years ago it was the universal practice for the pupils in any one grade to finish only one reader which was written for that particular grade. When that book was read, it was considered that enough work had been done and sufficient skill acquired. Now emphasis is laid upon rapid silent reading, while oral reading is not by any means neglected. Nowadays it is common for the children in the second or third grade to read as many as ten or even twenty books on their particular grade level.

Much greater emphasis is also placed at present not only upon the amount read, but also upon the ability of the pupil to understand what he has read. As a result of the methods that are being employed at the present time, the next generation of readers will be much more efficient than are adults of the present day. They will also be better thinkers because of the stress that is being placed upon reading understandingly and the ability to state in clear concise language their own thoughts.

The new emphasis given in the teaching of reading in the Chicago schools may be stated briefly as follows: (a) a wide range of vicarious experience obtained through reading a large number of books on the pupil's grade level; (b) training in facility in expression of ideas and in clear thinking; (c) the acquisition of a rich and useful vocabulary; (d) fluent oral reading designed to carry over into every-day conversation; (e) careful attention given to clear enunciation and correct pronunciation; (f) the correction of speech defects among school children by experts in this particular field; (g) creating in the pupil an abiding interest in good literature.

As an aid in attaining the type of training implied by the foregoing objectives, a substantial increase was made in the budget for the purchase of supplementary readers and reference books.

When Shall Arithmetic Be Taught?

In the teaching of arithmetic we are just beginning, by means of research, to determine by scientific means where the various operations can best be taught. For example, it has never been definitely determined in what grade we can teach long division most effectively. The same is true for other operations, such as the addition of fractions and percentages. When it has been determined where these operations can best be taught, a long step forward will have been taken in the teaching of arithmetic. For some time past, conviction has obtained among teachers and others that the fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division should be more thoroughly taught and that certain types of problems that rarely occur in actual life should be eliminated. The following problem was taken from an arithmetic book that was popular a few years ago:

Divide: 19/42 of 28/33 of 11/14 of 7 1/9 by 23/35 of 5/8 of 16/23 of 8/35 of 24 5/12.

It used to be common practice to spend considerable time teaching children problems in compound interest. They were difficult and it took a great deal of time, patience and ingenuity to work out one of these problems correctly. Such operations as square root and cube root were commonly found in our texts. Problems of this character almost never occur in the experience of the average person. Educators feel that the time could be much better spent upon problems that are definitely related to life activities.

In teaching mathematics an effort is made to lead the pupil to an appreciation of the great variety of ways in which his every-day life is affected by computation and measurement. He is led to see that the science of number is one of the foundation stones of civilization. Without mathematics there could be no great cities, no skyscrapers, no machinery, no currency and no business relationships. He is taught the many ways of presenting facts by graphic methods. He is taught to develop ideals of neatness and accuracy; to use exact methods in his search for the truth; to be independent in his opinions and constructive in his thinking; to value form in architecture, nature and art.

Courses in aeronautics now are offered in Chicago's technical high schools.

In the field of science teaching in our schools, marked improvements have been made. A good illustration of this may be taken from the subject of physiology. The approach in the teaching of this subject a few years ago was generally that of memorizing the names of all the bones in the body. It was something of a task for a third grader to do this and the information was of little value after he had mastered it. This is an instance of how the ideas of adults were imposed upon young and immature minds. It is perfectly natural for one who has reached maturity to approach a subject from the analytical point of view, but this is not the natural approach of children whose minds do not operate as do the minds of adults.

When it comes to the teaching of nature study in our schools and any particular animal is chosen for study, the approach should be made from the standpoint of the pupil himself. The questions children ask when they see a mud puppy, for example, are, "What is its name?" "Will it bite?" "Where does it live?" and similar questions. They do not begin by inquiring how many bones it has in its body.

Like many other subjects in the curriculum, science was first presented as a content subject. The principal aim was the accumulation of information by the pupil. The textbook was the tool used in teaching and learning. When the required information had been memorized and the final examination passed the pupil was given his credit and then forgot what he had learned.

To-day, science courses are conducted as a series of laboratory problems and projects taken from life experiences. Information is acquired through activity. The relation of what is learned to the daily experiences and the environment is emphasized. Thus science pupils are made to feel that they are learning about things that are vital to an intelligent understanding and interpretation of phenomena found in the activities of their daily life.

The subject of the modernization of courses of study is so broad that one can touch only a few of the more fundamental subjects that are taught in our schools. I have already discussed briefly the subjects of reading, arithmetic and physiology. I should like to speak somewhat more in detail regarding the changes that are being made in the teaching of civics. For a good many years past thinking people have believed that one of the most important objectives of our schools was training for citizenship. If the schools can achieve this purpose, they will be serving well and efficiently the major aim for which they are established and maintained.

A marked change has come about in the char-

acter of civics textbooks written during the last twenty years. The earliest textbooks in civics were catechetical in form; that is, they contained questions and answers. The children were required to memorize the answers. An illustration of this type of textbook is as follows:

Question: Why do men live together?

Answer: Because God made them to live together in society.

Question: How does that appear?

Answer: God has given to man a social nature which renders society necessary to their happiness and improvement.

Question: If a man is willing to forego the advantages of society, may he not cease to be a member of it?

Answer: He has no right to forego the advantages of society.

Question: How does that appear?

Answer: God designed that he should live in society and enjoy its benefits and he has no right to act contrary to that design.

Studies Should Be of Practical Value

We are coming to realize that the materials of our courses of study should be concrete, definite and of practical value in training boys and girls to meet life's situations. Our schools are doing a splendid piece of work in training young people in assuming school responsibilities. This can be illustrated by the safety patrols which are organized in every school in the city. These boys are at their posts in all kinds of weather. Without doubt they save the lives of scores of children every year. In many of our schools we have a great many extra-curricular activities that train for citizenship. Notable among these are the school cities or junior republics, as they are sometimes called. These are patterned after the city and national governments. Officers are elected and appointed and the government of the school is conducted largely through these organizations.

The ideals of the good citizen are being set up through training in actual life problems. An illustration of what is meant by this type of instruction will make clear what we mean by concrete life situations.

In a certain district in Chicago the children in going to school cut across lawns and wore down the grass. Shrubbery was destroyed and flower beds were ruined. One of the civics teachers saw in this situation an opportunity for definite training in respect for the property of others. Too frequently an occasion of this character is handled from a purely disciplinary point of view. The culprits are called to the office of the principal where proper punishment is meted out and the matter promptly dropped. This teacher was a person of rare insight. She presented the matter fairly and frankly to her pupils. The class was taken to see for themselves the damage that had been done. The teacher raised the question of how the property owners might feel about this damage and their attitude toward the school. The children saw quickly that the offense they had committed was a rather serious one.

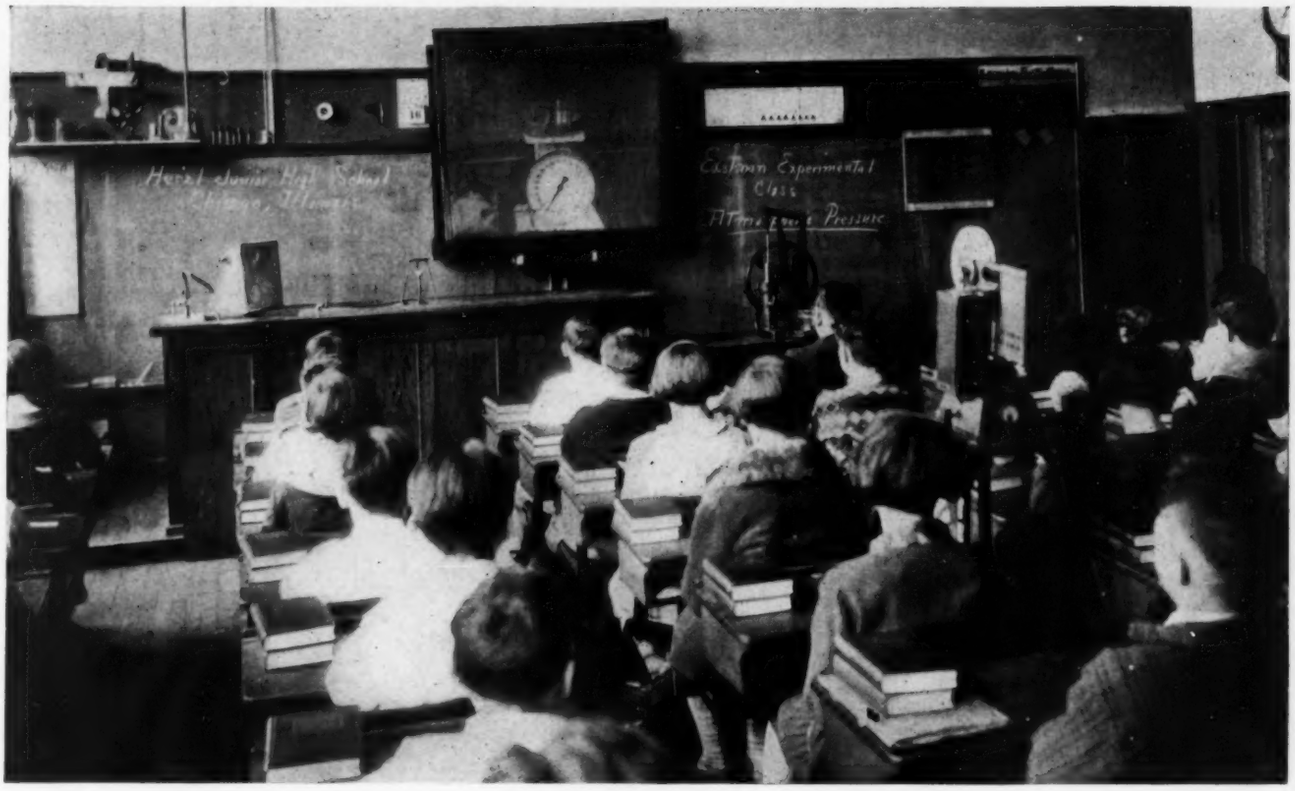
At this point many teachers would have said, "Now let this be a lesson to you, don't do it again." This particular teacher, however, did not stop there. She raised the question with her pupils, "What can be done to put a stop to this form of misconduct?" A good deal of thought and discussion was centered upon the answer to this question. The children found themselves in the position of having to work out their own salvation. Herein lies the chief value of this type of teaching procedure. A plan was devised that was effective in accomplishing the desired results.

As interest in this particular problem increased, it was soon discovered that more than one room in the school was guilty of trespass. The matter was referred to the officers of the "School City," which was a pupil government organization. Thus it became a major project in citizenship for the entire school. Signs were made in the manual training rooms and were placed at strategic points to remind pupils of their civic responsibility.

The older pupils prepared short talks which were given in all the rooms of the school. The pupils responded as was expected. Results were obtained in terms of conduct. But this was not yet enough. The teachers in the various rooms had their children apply what they had learned and experienced in this situation to other situations. It was discovered that some of the boys had broken some windows in the neighborhood. Other minor offenses had been committed. The pupils went directly to the persons whom they had injured and proper restitution was made. Later, principles were formulated by the pupils by which their conduct should be guided in such matters in the future.

Children Analyze Own Problems

This type of teaching technique is valuable for the following reasons: (1) It was based on a definite concrete situation taken from the daily experiences of the children; (2) The pupils were given the opportunity of analyzing their problem and formulating a plan for working out their own salvation; (3) Each step in their program was carried through by the children in terms of self-activity; (4) They were taught how



Film lesson in science, Herzl Junior High School, Chicago.

to apply the procedures and the lessons they had learned in connection with this project in civic training to other situations taken from their own experiences; (5) Principles of personal conduct were formulated to serve as a guide for the future.

During recent years we have come to appreciate the value of visual instruction. Recent experiments by Dr. Ben D. Wood, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Dr. Frank N. Freeman, University of Chicago, have shown that through the use of films in the classroom, pupils' marks are raised on an average of approximately 24 per cent. Even if the efficiency of the school work is increased by only 10 per cent, it seems that school boards would be justified in making generous provision for visual instruction in our schools. The Bureau of Visual Instruction, Chicago, has on hand 250,000 slides and 353 films. Last year the circulation of slides was 614,000 while the number of films circulated in the schools was 2,498.

In view of the fact that tremendous strides are being made in the field of aviation, William J. Bogan, superintendent of schools, Chicago, last Fall organized new courses in aeronautics in all the technical high schools of the city. Through these courses an attempt is being made to prepare our boys for a new development that has been rapid in its growth and is certain to play an important part in the future development of our country.

Through the initiative of Mr. Bogan, several committees are hard at work on courses of study in health education and character education. An exhaustive study is also being made of the important problem of juvenile delinquency in Chicago.

It may be said that we are developing in Chicago an educational program comprehensive enough to include not only a mastery of the fundamental processes but, in addition, a type of training that will educate both children and parents in matters pertaining to health, mental as well as physical. We are attempting to put first things first by recognizing that ethical character is of supreme importance. Provision is being made to afford to each child an opportunity to develop to the fullest possible extent the abilities and capacities he may possess; to take advantage of the many cultural and esthetic advantages the city affords; to assume leadership in school activities; to be open-minded and tolerant; to cooperate with his fellows in matters of civic interest and to contribute whatever of talent he may have to the general welfare of his city. The schools of Chicago are seeking to develop in youth the latent possibilities of human character so that, in the end, the larger life may be cultivated in service to community, state and nation.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Guidance Practices

Eight-year investigation reveals that hit or miss counsel for secondary-school pupils is being replaced by direct, systematic and expert advice that concerns itself chiefly with the problems of individual self-adjustment

By A. H. EDGERTON, Director of Vocational Guidance, University of Wisconsin

ALEXANDER POPE once advised, "Be not the first by whom the new is tried, nor yet the last to lay the old aside." Perhaps no single outcome of an eight-year investigation of existing guidance practices is more significant than the evidence that points to the speedy replacement of incidental and hit or miss advisement where the main emphasis is placed upon mass methods, by more trustworthy and adequate procedures where the chief concern is individual self-adjustment.

Direct Counsel Necessary

Fewer and fewer secondary-school administrators and teachers now conceive of the school's responsibility for educational and vocational guidance as being limited to occasional, haphazard conferences between pupils and teachers. With few exceptions, school executives are agreed that the present complexities in social and economic life, together with the rapid expansion in educational offerings, have made direct, systematic and expert counsel not only desirable but necessary. Undoubtedly this decision has been somewhat influenced by the rapid introduction of differentiated curricula in intermediate and junior high schools and the subsequent adoption of more specialized curricula in senior high schools and special vocational or part-time courses. Consequently, for an increasing number of children, a secondary-school education now includes a reasonable amount of trustworthy assistance in securing desired information and perspective pertaining to educational opportunities, occupational possibilities and employment requirements.

The most complete plans for vocational and educational guidance aim to provide continuous and efficient advisement services for pupils during their entire school attendance above the sixth grade and also during their early employment training and adjustment periods. The growing demands for unbiased guidance to aid young persons in adapting their individual aptitudes to appropriate studies and occupations naturally have stressed the need for basing methods of guidance on scientifically determined evidence whenever possible.

The *American Mercury* for October, 1928, and the *World's Work* for December, attempt to deny the possibilities for reliable guidance. The destructive nature of the former article, which is captioned, "Psychology as Fortune Teller," and the misinterpretation of the guidance movement in the latter, entitled, "The Newest Fad in Education," remind me of the reported experience of a college president, who some time ago was delighted to have the opportunity of showing off some newly installed chimes to an unsuspecting visitor. It happened that as they approached the building that represented the president's center of interest, melodious peals of music greeted them. "What do you think of our chimes?" asked the proud college head. "What did you say?" responded the visitor. "How do you like our chimes?" repeated the president. Showing clearly his vexation, the visitor fairly shrieked, "Those damn bells are making so much noise I can't hear a word you are saying."

Critical Articles Beneficial

Contrary to the views of a few of my friends who are responsible for guidance services in progressive school systems, I seriously believe it would prove beneficial to have these critical articles of questionable practices appear in widely read current magazines. While many of the implications in the first article are decidedly misleading, nevertheless our findings in 143 cities distributed through twenty-nine states verify in some degree several of the practices condemned by Montaville Flowers, but only a small percentage of the guidance practices and results as rated independently by three unbiased judges.

Aside from the poor quality of services offered by certain secondary schools, which rated com-

paratively low on the scale of actual achievement in individual adjustment, the data shown in the accompanying table and based on the number of pupils served out of each one hundred, indicate that comprehensive systems of guidance do not exist for the large majority of secondary-school children. These seven guidance activities, which were agreed upon as essential by eighty-eight of the ninety-three representative guidance leaders who were selected from public-school systems and teacher training institutions, are listed, with the approximate range of points that the judges allowed, based on a scale of one hundred, although varying in the emphasis placed upon each item. These judges insist that a vocational guidance program that does not include all of these activities cannot claim to be complete. In other words, its degree of completeness necessarily must be judged by the number of these activities as well as by the quality of their services.

TABLE SHOWING ACTUAL AND DESIRED GUIDANCE EMPHASIS

Guidance Activities Provided	*Actual No. of Pupils Served (Basis 100)*	*Range of Points Judges Allowed (Basis 100)*
1. Aiding pupils to obtain adequate, reliable and significant information concerning occupations	81	8-22
2. Providing exploratory experiences as an aid to pupils in testing their fitness for certain educational and occupational divisions, and as an aid to teachers in discovering pupils' interests and abilities	52	6.5-13.5
3. Collecting and making available for use pertinent information concerning the abilities, aptitudes, temperaments and personality characteristics of individual pupils	46	15-27
4. Assisting individual pupils to evaluate occupational information and the results of exploratory experience in terms of their personal abilities, interests and characteristics, and helping them to plan their vocational preparation	63	16-24
5. Providing vocational education opportunities for pupils to prepare for the occupations they have chosen	71	7.5-17.5
6. Aiding pupils seeking placement to obtain advantageous entry into the occupations chosen	88	7-18
7. Helping the pupil through employment supervision to progress in his occupation if it proves suitable or to change if it proves unsatisfactory	13	5.5-14.5

About 2,400 years ago, Aristotle contended that a pilot, not a carpenter, is the better judge of a rudder, and a guest, not a cook, is the better judge of a dinner. If we accept this bit of Aristotle's logic we should judge individual counseling methods, for example, by the assistance derived from them by the counselee rather than by the arbitrary value that is sometimes insisted upon by the counselor.

By this method the following individual advisement services were found by pupils to be most effective when administered at an opportune time for meeting individual needs and interests: discussion of the occupational and educational problem or plan with the individual, to provoke thoughtful self-guidance and share mutual confidence with the person interviewed and to ascertain the kind and quality of vocational and educational information possessed by the counselee; assisting the counselee in supplementing his understanding of the conditions, opportunities and requirements in selected occupations through the choice of suitable reading material, through conferences with designated specialists either within or outside of school organization, and through visitation of establishments or offices where occupational representatives are employed; aiding the individual in further analysis of his strong and weak points by encouraging him to benefit by the results of available records and appropriate tests such as intelligence, achievement, aptitude or trade tests, by arranging exploratory contacts in curricular and extra-curricular activities for self-finding purposes and by securing part-time or temporary employment in the occupation or occupations that give the greatest promise for his success.

In his significant study pertaining to the growth of wealth, Hollis Godfrey, president, En-

gineering-Economics Foundation, has presented facts that should be known and used by all educational workers to justify their instructional and guidance services. He found that wealth grew very slowly during the fifty-year period from 1790 to 1840 but that a gradual upward trend took place between 1840 and 1850. At this point material wealth increased quite rapidly—11,700 per cent by 1900. However, this rise is second to the sharp upward trend in 1900 which is represented by almost a perpendicular line due to an increase of approximately 50,000 per cent of wealth since 1790. Of this total gain, about 80 per cent of it came since 1900.

Inasmuch as the most rapid increase in wealth was found by Godfrey to have begun in 1900, he decided to examine, among other things, the trend of educational offerings during this period. He wanted to know the number of high-school graduates year by year for comparison with his findings in the study of the growth of wealth. He found that as the high-school population of America has increased, so wealth has been augmented: "From 1900 until to-day, the actual percentage of increase of wealth is 414 per cent. The actual increase in high-school population is 410 per cent. Point by point the two have increased together." Incidentally, our investigation has revealed the fact that guidance activities have increased 368 per cent during this same period.

Human Resources Must Be Developed

During no previous period in the development of the country's material wealth have thinking men and women manifested so much serious concern about the desirability and the necessity of conserving the most potent and precious wealth we possess—our human resources. As might be expected, this growing tendency of teachers, employers and parents to attach greater importance to the development of individual human resources than to the perfection of standardized material resources is gradually leading us to search for and to make use of tested methods for the wiser choice of curricula and of occupation, the better selection of preparation and saner adjustment in employment. The somewhat generally but often hazily conceived need for organized educational and vocational guidance has necessarily resulted in varying provisions and procedures, some of which are mere gestures. Perhaps one of the outstanding difficulties at the present time is the too prevalent practice, still indulged in by guidance and allied workers, of permitting their enthusiasm for aiding boys and girls to outrun their actual knowledge of the uses and limitations of existing guidance techniques.

Of the 117,000,000 inhabitants in this country, approximately 30,000,000 are now supposed to be receiving purposeful instruction and individual guidance. The United States Bureau of Education states that there are 22,000,000 persons having had a high-school education or its equivalent either in or preparing for occupations. It is estimated that about 4 per cent, or 880,000 of these have attended or will attend institutions of higher learning. To what extent are guidance and personnel services now aiding each individual who will leave school of choice or of necessity, and each one who will continue full-time schooling to make his education and training a worth while investment rather than an out and out speculation or futility?

Effort Made to Provide Services

Notwithstanding the present limitation in guidance services, more and more educational systems are making serious efforts to provide suitable services in school counseling, vocational preparation, occupational placement and work adjustment. The results of our eight-year study, covering 4,500 boys and girls between the ages of eleven and seventeen, indicate a growing recognition of the importance of individual differences in interest, aptitude and capacity, which is gradually leading us to abandon our fruitless counseling for rather than with individuals.

In this connection, we can agree with Terman that the standardization and improvement of test methods have brought about an unfortunate tendency to replace clinical analysis of individual cases with statistical treatment of mass data in which the individual is represented by an impersonal score. However, it is quite apparent that this criticism will apply equally to guidance services unless more time and emphasis are placed upon guidance techniques to aid individuals with their specific problems rather than to counsel groups or classes almost entirely, as was found to be the tendency in considerably more than half of the schools that were investigated.

Even modern education which accepts the obligation of pupil adjustment, sometimes in actual practice assumes that the adjustment is entirely up to the individual. This practice in its extreme form seems to assume that the course of study when once formulated is permanently established and may be elected or disregarded, passed or failed, but at least not changed to meet the needs of individual pupils. Such misinterpretation is quite contrary to a cardinal principle of guidance which assumes that we are more concerned with what a study can do for the individual than we are with what the individual may be required to

do with any study. Perhaps two exhibits from the findings of our investigation will make this tendency clear.

1. In the investigation of provisions for exploratory or "self-finding" experiences in the secondary schools of 143 cities, the following data were revealed: Approximately 20 per cent of required courses would seem to have failed in providing activities of common value to all pupils regardless of future occupation; over 78 per cent of the exploratory or "self-finding" courses would seem to be devoid of related occupational information; nearly 90 per cent of all courses would seem to have made little or no provision for differences in plans of pupils, including those who intend to leave school early by choice or through necessity and those who probably will go to college. These tendencies would seem to overlook the generally accepted cardinal principles of secondary education, and in addition they limit the possibilities of individual guidance and adjustment.

2. In the study of the interests of more than 4,500 pupils as revealed by inventories of outside activities involving what they do, observe and read when not required to do so by the school, the following discoveries were made: There was a correlation of over 91 per cent between doing or observing and reading; over 32 per cent of the activities participated in had not been represented by subjects as noted in the courses of study; nearly 20 per cent of the activities listed in the courses of study of the schools from which the pupils were selected would seem to be dead issues insofar as pupils' outside interests and experiences are concerned. Of course, it is not implied that the course of study should include only those experiences in which children have manifested interest by outside participation, although it is suggested that marked discrepancies between out of school interests and required school activities might well be scrutinized and studied.

"Educational Waste Baskets"

It is likewise important that the growing misconception that secondary-school pupils of low intelligence, as measured by mental tests, must be relegated to practical arts and vocational courses should be counteracted. If we fail to stem this tide we are certain to permit these subjects to continue to become the "educational waste baskets" for those pupils who are transferred to practical arts and vocational courses because they could not succeed in the so-called academic courses. It will not suffice to criticize present day intelligence tests as narrow and academic in scope.

Nor is the remedy to be found in deploring the loose use to which the term, "general intelligence," is often put. We know that there are many kinds of intelligence other than those now being measured by standardized tests. The results of Stenquist's study of mechanical ability have shown that at least 20 per cent of the pupils from a typical school who are below average in general abstract intelligence are above average in the kind of ability required in four mechanical tests.

There is now sufficient evidence to suggest that special ability is as important as that required to score high in the abstract general intelligence tests. For example, a recent study of relationship between the results of intelligence tests, information tests, aptitude tests and rating scales with 734 of the pupils already referred to convinced me beyond doubt that our task should consist in testing pupils' abilities and interests in various ways and that neither intelligence nor achievement tests are necessarily indicative of special ability.

Special Aptitudes Not Measured

In this study it was interesting to note that a number of boys and girls who have pronounced abilities in mechanics, poetry, creative art and mathematics were found to be either slightly above or slightly below the median intelligence of the group, which merely means that the intelligence test did not measure the special aptitudes of these pupils. Unfortunately, there is still a strong tendency to attach a stigma to pupils scoring low in so-called intelligence tests. Even for pupils whose abstract intelligence is found after adequate testing to be low, there is ample opportunity for their special abilities to make them successful in careers for which they are often better adapted than are individuals of high abstract intelligence.

We must recognize that while there are different kinds of ability that may assist in determining the wisdom of a college education, there is no evidence that the one who has decided to go to college possesses a higher type of ability than the one who is advised to begin preparation for an occupation of secondary grade. In this connection Prof. M. V. O'Shea has written recently in The NATION'S SCHOOLS, as follows: "We appear to be ready in this country to act on the view that culture does not mean the acquisition of any particular variety of facts. In America an individual may be regarded as cultured if he can pull his own oar, play an intelligent rôle as a citizen, understand the physical and social world around him and adjust himself in peace, harmony and

good will to the people among whom he lives."

Fortunately, an increasing number of scientists seem to agree that the study of our human problems affords the richest possibilities for serving mankind. This late awakening to the demands for conservation and utilization of human capacity is made all the more striking because of the contributions of research in the so-called exact sciences, including physics, chemistry and engineering. While much in the way of suggestive procedures may be gleaned from the fruitful researches in physical science, for example, it must be remembered that human research is confronted with additional complexities, especially in interpreting data, because we are dealing with personal qualities that are known to give widely varying responses to stated conditions.

Counselors Must Be Trained

As the guidance services are of such vital concern, it is imperative that they be administered by persons possessing the needed equipment and training. The duties of each counselor demand a high standing in personality, in vision and in training. The mistake is often made of presuming that men and women with many years of successful teaching experience will necessarily make the most successful guidance workers. Although teaching experience is recognized as an asset, it is obvious that successful teaching experience alone will not suffice. In any case the guidance worker should have a broad, comprehensive knowledge of the occupational possibilities and requirements through first-hand contacts. The diagnoses and recommendations must be based as far as possible upon scientific findings in order that each case may be carefully investigated and satisfactorily adjusted in the interest of the individual concerned.

By far the greatest promise in sane guidance and educational work to-day is based on an analysis of duties and qualifications in each occupational division. Such an analysis is necessary that intelligent forecast may be made as to the success of individuals who complete designated courses of training. Every individual who takes a certain course has a right to expect assistance in determining whether he possesses qualities that will assure at least passable success in his chosen vocation when his course of training is completed. Furthermore, the courses of training must be reorganized, if necessary, to meet the requirements of vocational demands. To-day there is much unnecessary study of subjects that one will never meet in life while other problems with which one will be confronted are not touched upon.

English Leads Other Departments in High Schools

To obtain information of a general character regarding the work of the heads of departments in the large high schools, the Commissioner of Education submitted a brief questionnaire to the principals of a number of the high schools enrolling 1,000 students and over. The questionnaire covered such points as the number of departments, the duties of the department heads and the approximate amount of time devoted to the supervision of instruction, classroom teaching and to other duties.

In the high schools having department heads, English leads the list, followed by mathematics. In the sciences, the prevailing practice is to have heads covering the field of science rather than the specialized subjects. In social science, only twenty-eight schools have heads of departments covering the field while sixty-five have departments of history. The foreign language field is considerably broken up into departments.

"Other duties" are listed as committee work, selection of textbooks, interviews, supervising extra-curriculum activities, student counseling and general and special administrative duties.

Many Colleges Offer Courses in City Planning

Problems connected with city planning and zoning have been receiving marked attention of late from American educational institutions.

This is attested by the fact that within the last two months the division of building and housing, Department of Commerce, has received requests for publications on these subjects from more than 200 colleges and universities in all parts of the country.

The subjects of city planning and zoning are considered of importance in courses on municipal government and other branches of political science, economics, sociology, architecture, landscape architecture and highway engineering. In law schools, the legal aspects of city planning and zoning are treated in courses in several fields, such as municipal corporations and constitutional law.

In many cases it has developed that university officials are personally connected with local city or town planning boards or zoning commissions and that their authorities regard the proper planning of the municipalities in which they are situated as a matter that directly concerns their universities' welfare.

How New Haven Provides for Its Mentally Defective Children

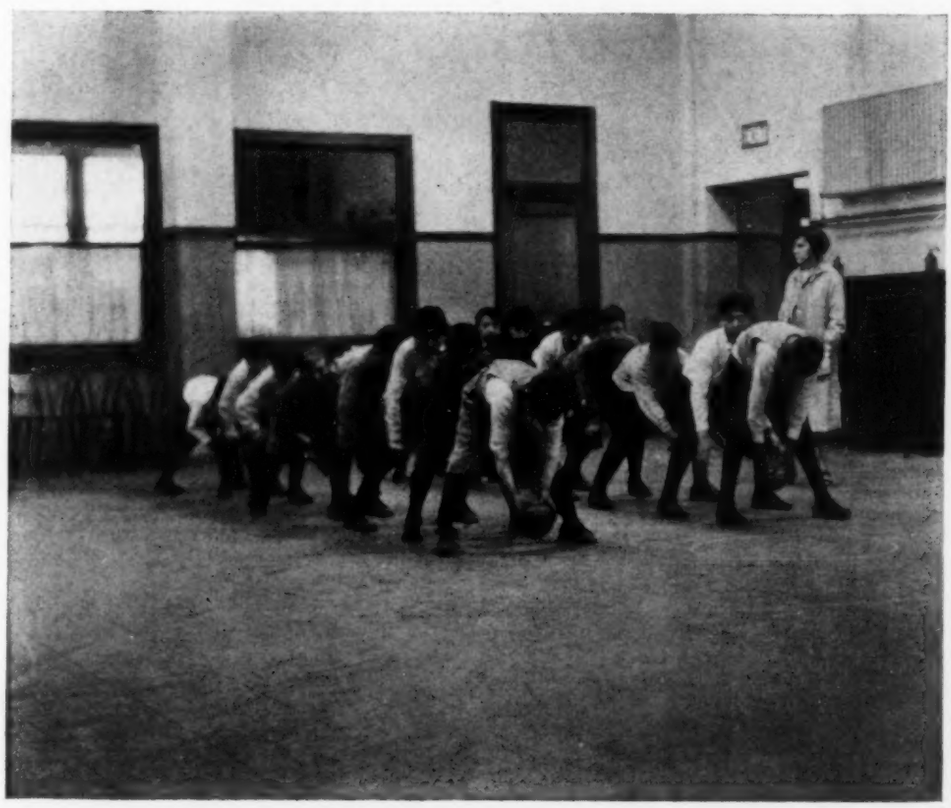
The Spireworth and Atwater Schools built at a moderate cost for subnormal children are a source of pride to the pupils who are happy to have their own special schools

By J. C. McCARTHY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, and NORMA E. CUTTS, Supervisor, Department of Exceptional Children, New Haven, Conn.

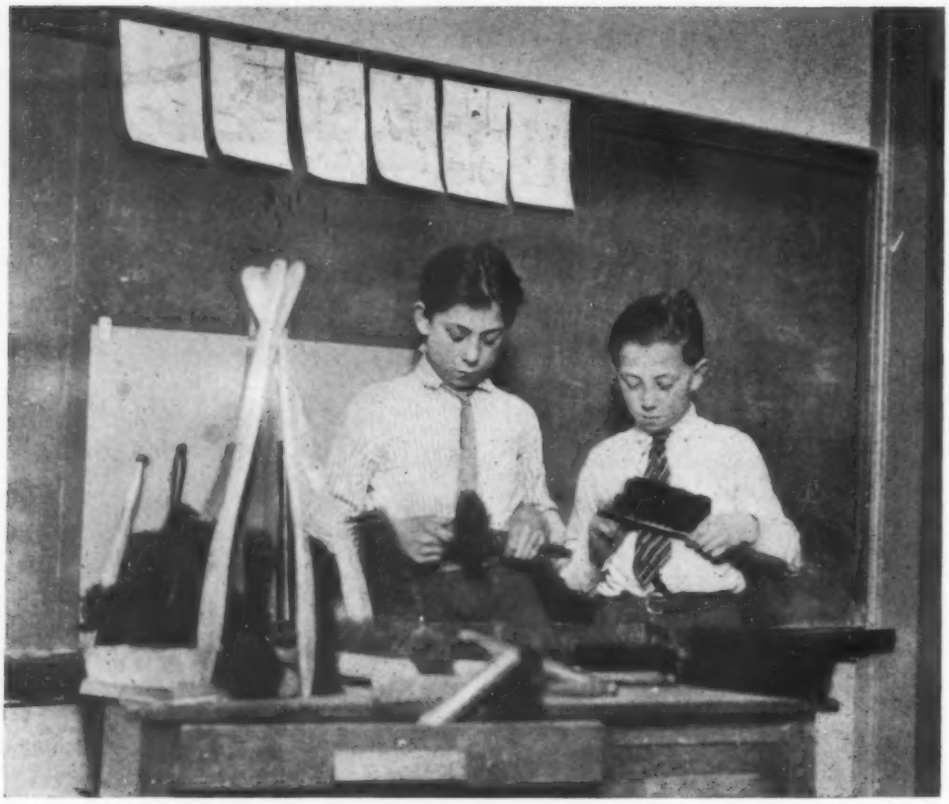
THE first classes established for the education of mentally defective children in New Haven, Conn., like those in other cities were organized in rooms that were left vacant as the least desirable. As more classes were established two central schools accommodating several special classes were opened, one in an old remodeled dwelling house and the other in a previously condemned wooden school building that had been unoccupied for some years. Both these schools proved to be of great assistance in training subnormal pupils. It was possible to arrange the work so that each teacher might work along two or three lines and not try to be such a Jack-of-all-trades as the teacher of a single special class must be.

One winter night the old wooden schoolhouse burned to the ground. Three small stores on a near-by corner, each heated by a coal stove, housed the classes in crowded quarters for the rest of the year. This was not so much of a hardship for the teachers and pupils as might have been expected, for they were watching the erection of a new school building on the site of the old one. More land was purchased beside the old plot and a new building, planned exclusively for the needs of subnormal pupils, was built. It was named the Spireworth School, from an old name associated with that section of the city. Since it is beyond the powers of enunciation for some of the pupils, they often call it the Spiders School.

The school accommodates 120 pupils, six classes of twenty pupils each. Twenty is as large a number as can be managed in one group since the



Boys enjoy the physical training classes in the gymnasium in the central part of the Spireworth School, especially when exercises take the form of games, as illustrated in this picture.



Manual training classes are popular with most of the boys. Here are shown two youngsters busily engaged in making brushes of all kinds.

pupils require individual attention and are often disciplinary problems. The building is rectangular in shape, with six classrooms, two on each of three sides of the building. Each classroom has its separate exit door so that when a class is dismissed the pupils do not have to pass through any other part of the building. This is a great advantage for some whose physical coordination is not good and for many more who can always find ways of being disorderly if the occasion permits.

Bathing Facilities Provided

The fourth side of the building is devoted to shower baths and toilets, those for the girls and those for the boys being near the rooms that each group occupies. The facilities for shower baths are adequate for the teaching and practice of cleanliness. This is one of the most important parts of work with subnormal children, who usually come from the poorest homes where they have little encouragement to keep clean. Every effort is made in school to help them develop pride in their personal appearance. In addition to a washbowl in nearly every room, there is one room that has twenty washbowls so that a whole class may go in at one time to wash. This is one of the most highly prized parts of the new building.

The rooms used for academic work are on the west side. Each class spends one hour a day at its most difficult work in these rooms, the pupils learning what they can of reading, writing and arithmetic, taught in a practical way. They need individual attention because each one may be able to learn something in a little different way from another. Another side of the building has two large classrooms, one a woodwork shop with benches and tool cabinets, the other a room equipped with looms for weaving and tables for other kinds of handwork. In these two rooms each boy is studied and taught to do anything with his hands that can be taught in school and that comes within the range of his ability. They learn to make toys and substantial articles of furniture, to weave rugs and scarfs, to cobble shoes and to shine them, to make baskets and lamp shades, to do a little paper hanging and some cement work and anything else an ingenious teacher finds it possible to teach them.

Girls Learn Housekeeping

In the side of the building devoted to the girls, there is a large kitchen equipped with washtubs and an ironing board, large sinks for dishwashing, a gas stove and tiers of ovens and an electric refrigerator. The girls learn to wash and iron and cook. They prepare and serve a lunch every day to a large number of the pupils. Next to the kitchen is a large sewing room where the girls learn to make their own clothes as well as many other attractive articles for use in the home.

The central part of the building is a hall lighted from the top by skylights, made possible by the one-story construction of the building. This is in constant use as an assembly hall, gymnasium and lunch room. It is used for an assembly hall whenever the pupils are all brought together. Each period in the day one class uses it as a gymnasium. At noon long tables are set up and the lunch is served from the kitchen which is at the end of the hall and opens on to it with large windows. These windows when open permit the serving of the lunch in cafeteria fashion from the counter behind them. Before Christmas the attractive articles made by pupils were arranged for sale in this room. Its connection with the kitchen has made it convenient as a gathering place for teachers not only of New Haven but of the state. A luncheon for the Connecticut Special Education Association was held in the assembly hall last winter. Exhibitions of pupils' work were arranged in the surrounding classrooms.

The principal's office is in the front of the building, so placed that she can see the rooms and can be immediately available whenever anything unusual happens. Beside this is the nurse's room. The building for the use of the pupils is all on one floor so that there are no stairs for the pupils to climb. Some of them find stair climbing difficult. There is a small second story above the principal's office and the nurse's room, which provides a teachers' room and a room for testing pupils from schools in that locality. The psychologist finds this useful.

School Building Replaces Dwelling

The old dwelling house which served as the first central school was crowded out by a new junior high school. That has been replaced by a new school built on the plan of the Spireworth School but with eight rooms instead of six. This necessarily makes the central hall larger and provides room for a small stage. The new building, which was christened the Atwater School, was opened in September, 1928.

The work for mentally defective children has been greatly facilitated by these convenient buildings. Good teachers for subnormal children are hard to find and to keep, but the new buildings have made the work so much more attractive that there are now more applicants than are needed. Sufficient space and lack of opportunity for mischief have helped greatly in the problem of managing children who do not readily adjust themselves to group activities. They learn with fair rapidity to make necessary social adjustments. Good equipment and specially trained teachers have made it possible in many cases to discover and develop whatever ability the pupils possess.

The new buildings have added decidedly to the happiness of the pupils. There is little of the opposition that is often encountered in transferring pupils to special classes. The pupils take great pride in the new building and enjoy having it for their schoolhouse. Considering the Vineland motto, "Happiness First, All Else Follows," this is a most important aspect. The buildings have been planned economically. There is no waste space and while they are well built there is no ornamentation that would add to the cost of the building.

The Spireworth School is on Carlisle Street near Howard Avenue. It is near the railroad station. The Atwater School is on Atwater Street near Grand Avenue in the old Fair Haven section of the city. Visitors who are interested in the training of subnormal children are welcome to inspect both schools.

The Playground as a Training School for Citizenship

"It is now generally accepted that the attributes that constitute good character and citizenship may be achieved by a well planned and expertly administered program of physical education," Carl L. Schrader, state director of physical education of Massachusetts, writes in an article in *Education*. "Character and citizenship primarily are manifestations of deeds performed habitually. If we are correct in the assumption that habits are the results of frequently repeated acts, then one need not be an optimist to believe that when education offers opportunity for and guides the display of deeds, that much will carry over into the adult world.

"This guiding will set aright those who react offensively to a situation. Where are the situations more varied, more sudden and more lifelike than on the playground? There is usually not much time for deliberation as to what the response shall be. The experiments of yesterday prompt the action of to-day. The more varied the experiences are, the easier the action related to new situations that eventually arise. These highly prized citizenship qualities are not inherent in activities or games as such, but the activities and the games are the means through which they may become manifest. A boy may be a technically perfect pitcher, quarterback, sprinter, goal keeper or tennis player, and yet lack many or all the traits of a good sportsman or citizen."

What Qualifications Are Demanded of Teachers?*

An analysis of credential forms points to the need for a less complex system of rating, commends the merit of a personal inquiry and urges the use of a small record card for data concerning the candidate

By CALVIN O. DAVIS, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Michigan

FORTY-TWO blanks relating to teachers' rating were received from superintendents who use other forms than flexible cards. Replies relating to efficiency records and rating schemes were received from 110 superintendents. Many of these blanks were one-page leaflets and several consisted of two pages. Some superintendents made use of a four-page folder while a few had fairly elaborate booklets.

Here again, except for the elaborate schemes of rating, much similarity, despite many conspicuous differences, is found in the procedures and forms. By far the greatest number of superintendents ask for judgments upon a considerable number of specific items of significance grouped, however, into four, five or six main categories. The most common are personality, equipment (social and professional), management, technique, teaching and results. Frequently, too, the request for a general estimate of the teacher's merit is requested, such a general estimate being, supposedly, a composite of all of the particularized judgments or estimates that had been specifically recorded.

Division Groupings Used

To be still more definite 27 of the 42 blanks made use of the four, five or six division grouping of general items, 6 used fewer than four categories, 6 used more than six categories and 3 used no general categories whatever but merely set down a long list of particular queries without any noticeable attempt to organize these in a related manner.

Again, 16 of the 42 blanks listed between twenty-one and forty specific questions to serve as a rating guide under the larger categories; 5 others had between forty-one and sixty such questions; 3 had between ten and twenty queries; and 1 had in excess of sixty. The other 17 provided no detailed lists of checking items but either permitted the supervisor to make up his own lists of qualities on which judgments were to be made or asked definite questions about a certain few characteristics or else made use solely of a limited number of general phrases.

The five-point scale of grading is the most common, with 13 of the 42 superintendents making use of it. Twelve systems employ a numerical point system, 7 taking 100 to represent the perfect teacher, 1 using the figure 150, 1 using the number 200 and 3 using the number 900. Four systems differentiate judgments on a fourfold scale, while 2 systems each use the threefold scale, the sixfold scale, the sevenfold scale and the ninefold scale. The other five adopt a plan that is independent of precise grading.

Ask Judgments in Personality

Personality: Twenty-eight of the 42 forms examined expressly call for judgments in this attribute. The detailed questions under the general heading range from four or five to twenty or more. These usually concern the following qualities: personal appearance, health, voice, intellectual capacity, enthusiasm and optimism, punctuality and reliability, tact and common sense, accuracy, industry, self-control, sense of justice, resourcefulness.

Social and Professional Equipment: Twenty of the 42 superintendents make this category a prominent and coordinate one. Sometimes the two aspects of equipment, social and professional, are separated one from the other and each is made coordinate with the other general categories. Occasionally a third or fourth expression of like connotation is used to elicit judgments about the same general qualities. Thus, education, preparation, training are sometimes found as the distributive words.

The following question is illustrative of the way in which these data are sought and of the attempts made to define the terms used: Is there evidence of broad or adequate knowledge of sub-

*Parts 1, 2 and 3 of this article appeared in the January, February and May issues, respectively, of The NATION'S SCHOOLS. This is the fourth and last part.

ject matter, of professional improvement, of wholesome attitude toward criticism, of cooperation in curriculum and institute work, of constructive suggestions, of promptness and accuracy in reports requested?

Terms often listed include academic preparation, professional preparation, grasp of subject matter, understanding of children, ability to meet and interest patrons, cooperation and loyalty, daily preparation, use of English.

Management: Typical ratings under this heading concern the sympathetic understanding of children, tact, justice, firmness, discipline, records and report work, care of physical equipment, routine work, extra-classroom activities.

Teachers Rated on Skill

Technique of Teaching: In this connection teachers may be rated on their skill in composing and putting questions; skill in project engineering; keeping the pupil in the foreground; collecting and using drill material; conserving teaching time; dealing with the misfit child; teaching how to study and use books; growing in scholarship (knowledge of subject); teaching manner and voice; skill in organizing subject matter and assembling material; ability to select the teaching procedure best suited to the material; skill in motivating work, arousing interest, giving pupils proper incentives and specific purpose for work; attention to the individual needs of pupils and skill in measuring the progress of children.

Results: Ratings having to do with results are usually listed with regard to attention and response of class; growth of pupils in subject matter; stimulation of community; moral influence; general development of pupils; growth of character in children; improvement in children's ability to think; development of the social relationship of pupils.

General Questions of Interest

As in the other aspects of this study there are certain practices that do not lend themselves to synthesis under any comprehensive headings. Some of these are of particular interest. For example, one superintendent contents himself by asking the supervisors and principals to report on six items only, as follows:

1. Name a few of his or her strongest points.
2. Name a few of his or her weakest points.
3. What does the individual most need to increase his or her value to the system?
4. In your judgment, should this individual be retained in the ———— school system?
5. If so, in what position should he or she be placed?
6. Please check (x) beside the phrase which in your judgment applies. (Please be frank.)

( ) A failure ( ) Average
( ) Fair ( ) Just above average
( ) Just below average ( ) Splendid
( ) One of the very best teachers in the Blank system.

Another asks these questions, among others: "How long has this teacher taught under your supervision? Number and length of visits this year? Number of special conferences held this year?"

Another, after asking for specific judgments, asks: "Prospective value? Should any change in assignment of work be made next year? If so, what and why?"

Another under the heading of "General Rating" asks: "Do you recommend this teacher for reelection? If reelected do you wish this teacher assigned to your building? If not, why? Should any change of grade or department of work be made in assignment for next year? If so, what and why?"

Questions Proper Placing

Another: "In your judgment is this teacher at present located in the school, grade and department in which she can make her most valuable contribution to the system? If not, what do you suggest? If this teacher is exceptionally able, what promotion would you recommend? Is this teacher rendering the best service of which she is capable? If her teaching is unsatisfactory, explan what means you have adopted to prevent failure."

Another submits a questionnaire:

Have you seen this teacher's work frequently? ———— Approximate length of observation periods ———— Do you recommend that this teacher be (a) retained in your school? ———— (b) retained in another school? ———— (c) at the same salary? ———— (d) at an increase for years taught? ———— (e) for merit? ———— Has this teacher made professional advancement within a year by (a) attending summer school? ———— (b) extension courses? ———— (c) reading courses?———— In other ways?———— Specify ————

One superintendent, in the rating blank, says plainly that adequate preparation, sufficient health, character and a willingness to cooperate are assumed at the time of employment. Hence supervisors are to omit consideration of those items in making their annual reports unless conspicuous defections are noticed. Instead, each supervisor is to take into account primarily skills

and attitudes. These are of three kinds, namely, ability to teach, ability to manage and professional spirit and attitude, the three to be evaluated on a ratio of emphasis of 2:2:1.

This superintendent does, however, list twenty-six detailed items as subdivisions of the three groups named, but states that he does so merely "to suggest to the teacher some definite items of self-estimate, and specific guides for self-improvement; and, second, to furnish the several principals with an interpretation of the three main qualities in sufficient detail for them to form a fair and well balanced judgment." He states further, "No teacher will be held accountable for all the items enumerated. The list is only suggestive."

Lists Items of Self-Estimate

The list as he gives it follows:

Analysis of the main qualities. (The figures in parenthesis indicate the ratio of emphasis to be given.)

1. Ability to teach (2). The following items are suggested for consideration: completeness and accuracy of knowledge of subjects taught; sufficiency, variety and value of teaching material used; organization and arrangement of material; methods of presentation—questions, devices, assignments; drill—character and thoroughness; reviews and tests—character and effectiveness; attention to individual needs; training in habits of study and of work; results, technical and measurable; results in pupil response, in interest, initiative, self-reliance.

2. Ability to manage (2). Items for consideration: methods used in control of pupils; nature of response of the class in general; effect of teacher's personal influence; personal appearance, voice, mannerisms of the teacher insofar as they influence the behavior or attitude of the pupils; attention to physical conditions of the room, and to the physical welfare of pupils; character of records and promptness and character of reports; system and orderliness in general; teacher's total effectiveness in developing such moral qualities in pupils as respect, self-control, sense of responsibility, truthfulness.

3. Professional spirit and attitude (1). Items for consideration: professional growth, resulting from courses, both professional and general, systematic reading, travel, contributions to professional literature, investigations, educational experiments; interest in professional meetings, committee work, teacher and pupil welfare; interest in and openmindedness towards educational innovations, such as educational and intelligence tests, supervised study, social recitations, teacher councils; interest in the moral and social welfare of the community; judgment displayed in care of one's health, and in the use of surplus time and energy; attitude towards suggestions of supervisors and colleagues; general usefulness to the school; personal interest in the affairs of the class and of the individual pupils.

A general allowance on the total estimate may be made in any case where the teacher has been handicapped by untoward conditions beyond his or her control.

In the application of the plan the following suggestions are made: A numerical estimate should not be attempted, the analysis of the three main qualities being suggestive only.

Teachers are advised to rate themselves, and then to compare their own estimate with that of the principal.

The reports will be made in writing, the first about December 1 and sent to the office of the superintendent not later than December 10; a second about the middle of February, and sent to the superintendent not later than February 20.

Teachers whose work is up to standard will receive merely a notice in writing to that effect unless they request a detailed report. Others will receive a detailed statement embracing the three main items. The principal will send to the superintendent, however, a full report of all teachers.

Only teachers whose final rating is satisfactory may expect the scheduled increase in salary for the succeeding year. Service, in order to be reported as satisfactory, must, according to the provisions of the adopted schedule, be "meritorious," or at least good, not merely passable. No provision for special merit has yet been approved.

Signs Indicate Degrees of Quality

One superintendent uses the signs, plus and minus, to distinguish degrees of quality. The directions he suggests for rating are given here:

"Rater will indicate by a plus sign (+) the adjective, noun or phrase which relates to an attribute, attitude or activity in which the teacher scores high and in the same manner the rater will indicate by a minus sign (−) where the teacher merits a low rating. The absence of marks in the rating column indicates that the rater regards the teacher as one of near median power in those characteristics, or else that there is lack of information on those particular points. Where clearness would thus be added, underscore words to which mark particularly applies."

Credit for travel and for summer-school work is provided in one school.

"In order to receive the increase in salary for

any school year, for travel during the summer," the instructions set forth, "a report of the trip must be made to the board of education office on a blank provided for that purpose. This blank must be handed in as soon after the completion of the trip as possible, but in no case later than the first week of school in September. Trips taken during any school year will not affect the salary until the following year. Remarks made by principal, superintendent or chairman of teachers' committee on reverse side."

Rule Fixes Credit for Travel

Another school has the following ruling with regard to travel: "Credit will be allowed only after authenticated certificates of credit, signed by the proper college authorities, have been presented to the board of education office. In order to receive increase in salary for summer-school work for the current school year certificates must be presented not later than the first week after the opening of school in September. Credits earned during any school year will not apply toward salary increases until the following school year. Remarks made by principal, superintendent or chairman of teachers' committee on reverse side."

One city calls for rankings in respect to what is named "advisorship" and defines the word thus:

"Advisorship may be defined as that function of the teacher which characterizes her influence in building up worthy habits of thought and action in the lives of her student group. In her capacity of advisor the teacher will strive to bring about in her group an attitude of cheerful cooperation in carrying out school policies and school regulations. She will acquaint herself with the ambitions, the abilities and, to some extent, the home conditions of each member of her group, that she may give such counsel as will encourage each to achieve his best school work with a view to his present and his future needs and, if need be, she should recommend such changes in his school program as will enable him to do this."

The conclusions to be drawn from this analysis of credential forms are that school administrative officers are making extensive use of application blanks, recommendation blanks and rating and promotion blanks. Further, it is evident that these forms, together with the various specific items contained thereon, are almost as diversified in character as fancy can make them. This fact may be, or may not be advantageous. No doubt any attempt to standardize these forms closely would be a mistake. The very merit of a personal inquiry of any sort is that it is designed to reveal the traits or characteristics that the inquiring person deems to be of paramount importance to him individually. The unstandardized forms do this.

It is not at all certain, however, that a nearer approach to simplicity and uniformity than exists at present in these forms would not be more desirable from the standpoint of the candidate and more useful from the standpoint of the school officials. Positive it is that if the comprehensive and involved credential blanks are to be employed at all, these ought to be supplemented by other blanks on which are recorded the summarizing and the peculiarly significant items that need to be considered frequently by the office staff. The larger, detached records may then be filed away properly for reference if occasion ever demands their later reanalysis.

It would seem that a convenient office record form should be relatively small in size, should be kept on a rigid or semirigid card and should contain little if any more than the following data respecting the candidate: name and address; height and weight; photograph; teaching positions held; present salary; academic training (in brief summary form); professional training (in brief summary form); summary of judgments of former acquaintances and employers; general impression made in the personal interview; pertinent personal memoranda.

Reference Blanks Too Formal

In securing judgments from former acquaintances and employers, most blanks in use to-day are too formal and enter into too great minutiae in respect to the data sought. Merely a personal letter, personally fashioned, should be requested from each reference, or, if leading questions are asked, these should be brief and few in number. Not many busy men and women will discriminate carefully beyond a three-point range. They will recognize characteristics as desirable, undesirable or average. They will either recommend or refuse to recommend, or they will evade the necessity of any clear cut judgment by couching their vague opinions in harmless words that neither praise nor condemn. If, however, definite and precise judgments are to be sought, these should be elicited by the use of guiding words calling for clearly differentiating concepts. Thus, in illustration, the judgments respecting the personal appearance of the candidate may be secured by having individuals check against such words as commanding, winning, attracting no especial notice, insignificant, repellent. Or personality may be checked as striking, pleasing, average, innocuous, weak.

In the employment of a rating scale to serve as an agency for determining the retention, dismissal or promotion of teachers and as a guide to salary increases, the use of the following standards appears to be desirable:

1. The adoption of a five-point scale of discrimination, inasmuch as the scorers are expected to be trained experts in the work.

2. The making of not fewer than three ratings each year, these to be done by at least three individual judges.

3. The scoring on a limited number of definite items only, such as health, including vitality, energy, enthusiasm; interest in the general work of the school; interest in pupils; evidences of daily preparation; loyalty to superiors; spirit of cooperation shown; results obtained in classroom; influence on the school and the community and evidences of growth and professional spirit.

These are some of the valuable returns that the study has yielded and these are some of the suggestions for improvement. Other analysts will, of course, be expected to find in the data helpful ideas of different sorts, in accordance with the specific problems of their own practical situations.

Uniform System of Marking Is Recommended in Wisconsin

A questionnaire sent to Wisconsin high-school principals and superintendents at the beginning of the school year in September brought the following replies as to present practice in the use of school marks:

1. Of the 401 schools reporting, 221 are using percentages in giving semester or credit marks while 167 schools are using symbols for that purpose. Although more schools are now using percentages than symbols, 250 schools favor the use of symbols as against 156 schools favoring percentages. All of the 167 schools now using symbols as well as eighty-three schools now using percentages favor the use of symbols, while only six schools using symbols favor percentages.

2. Most of the schools reporting symbols in use favor and use "A" as the highest level mark, only twenty-three favor "E" and but one reported the use of "S" for that purpose.

3. Plus and minus signs used in connection with symbols are favored by 154 schools, but are not favored by 187 schools.

4. A number of schools interpret the five-letter scale as representing percentages, while a nearly equal number of schools regard the symbols as representing relative positions within the group (as average, above and below).

5. Schools to the number of 301 are distributing school marks in relation to the normal frequency curve; at the same time forty-six schools do not follow this practice.

6. At present 266 schools are giving a separate mark to citizenship and 136 schools are not.

For the purpose of uniformity throughout the schools of Wisconsin, a committee on high-school marks has recommended to the superintendent of public instruction the following marking system for use in all Wisconsin high schools:

In recording grades or scholarship marks and for transforming examination scores into class marks, it is suggested that a five-letter scale be used to represent qualities of achievement within a class.

The letter "A" would be used to designate the best work; "B" to represent work better than average; "C" that of the middle group or average; "D" the quality better than failing and poorer than average, and "F" to represent work for which no credit is given.

A separate mark would be given for qualities of school citizenship (not "civics").

In applying this marking system it is suggested that an average grade of "C" be interpreted as the lowest mark on the basis of which pupils may be recommended for college entrance.

The use of plus and minus signs attached to symbols are to be discouraged.

For all large groups of pupils the normal frequency curve may be used as a guide for distributing the marks as follows: for the "A" marks approximately 7 per cent of the total number, for the "B" marks 24 per cent, for the "C" marks 38 per cent, for the "D" marks 24 per cent and for the "F" marks approximately 7 per cent.

In those schools employing homogeneous grouping of pupils on the basis of ability, it is recommended that the letters "X" (high), "Y" (average), or "Z" (low), accompany the marks A, B, C, on the office record to indicate to other schools that the latter marks were secured by the pupil in a group of high, average or low ability.

The committee has suggested that for class averages and individual averages for special honor and athletic records, a numerical equivalent be used for each of the letters, assigning to "A" the value 3, "B" the place 2, "C" the number 1, "D" the number 0, "F" the negative 1.

In high schools adopting this system no pupil may play an interscholastic athletic contest who has an average score of less than 0. With this plan in use no school should need to translate an evaluation into percentages.

Teaching Health and Nutrition in the School Cafeteria

Educating the pupils in wholesome health and food habits is definitely a part of the school lunch room program which should be so planned that it will carry over into the homes of the children

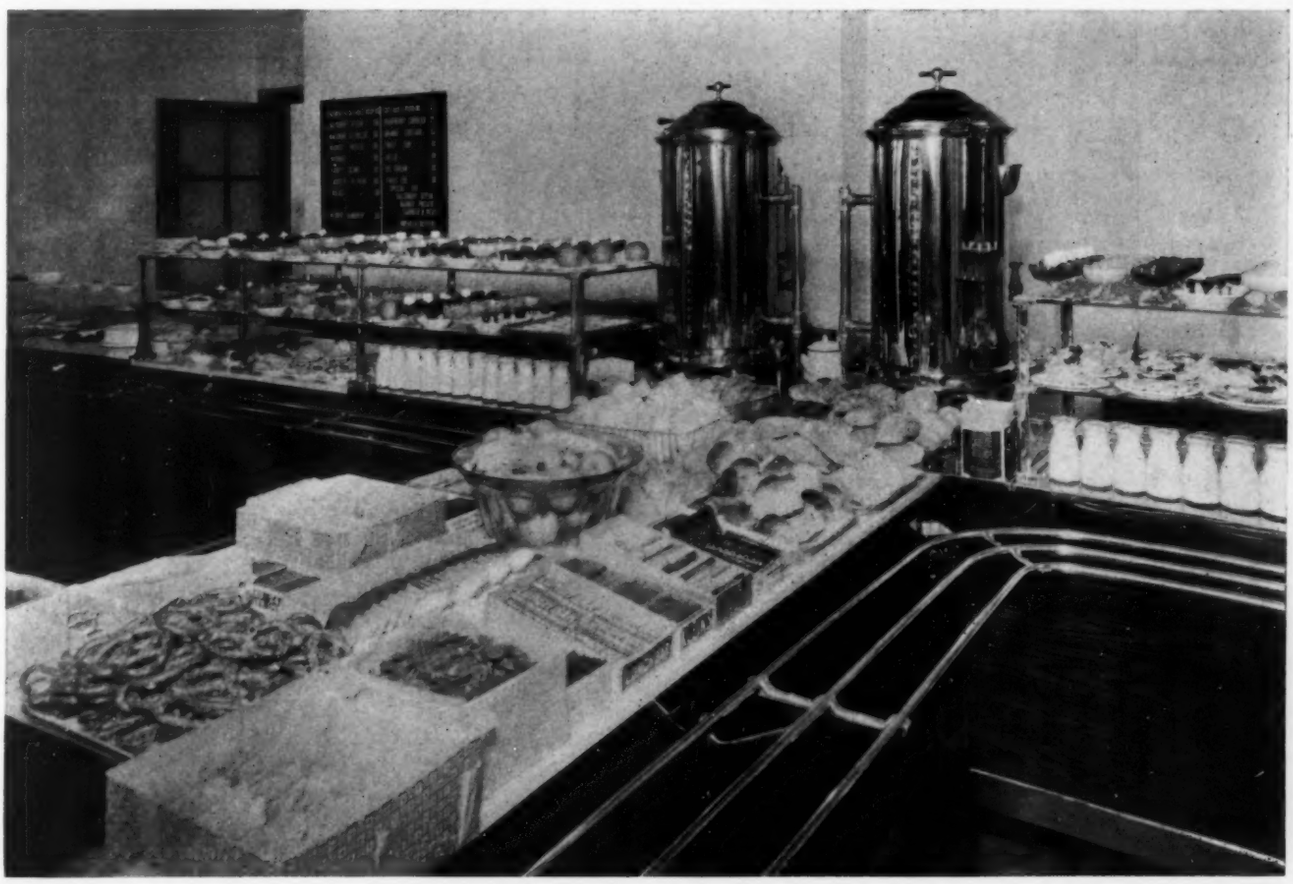
By EDITH SAUERS, Manager, Central High School Lunch Room, Cleveland

IT HAS been demonstrated that right foods, properly prepared and attractively served, can be made to appeal to the average child in the lunch room cafeteria. Part of the purpose of health teaching in the classroom is to develop a basis of judgment in the selection of food.

When the child comes to choose his noonday lunch, if healthful foods please his eye and his appetite, the exercise of judgment is combined with a natural choice. Repeated day after day, right food habits become a routine matter. There is therefore as much opportunity for health teaching through the proper preparation and display of foods in the lunch room as there is for training in selection in the subjects studied in the classroom.

For serving a hot noonday lunch in a school the need of certain standard equipment is accepted. The amount and type of equipment will vary according to the number of pupils to be served and the variety of foods offered. The dining room should be in proportion to the size of the school so that all those who wish may avail themselves of the hot noonday lunch. The raw food materials must be of a good quality. Supervision will be needed in the preparation of the food. The attractiveness with which the food is displayed on the counter is an important factor. The hot dishes should reach the child while they are still hot and the salads must be crisp and fresh.

A school that has consciously met these require-



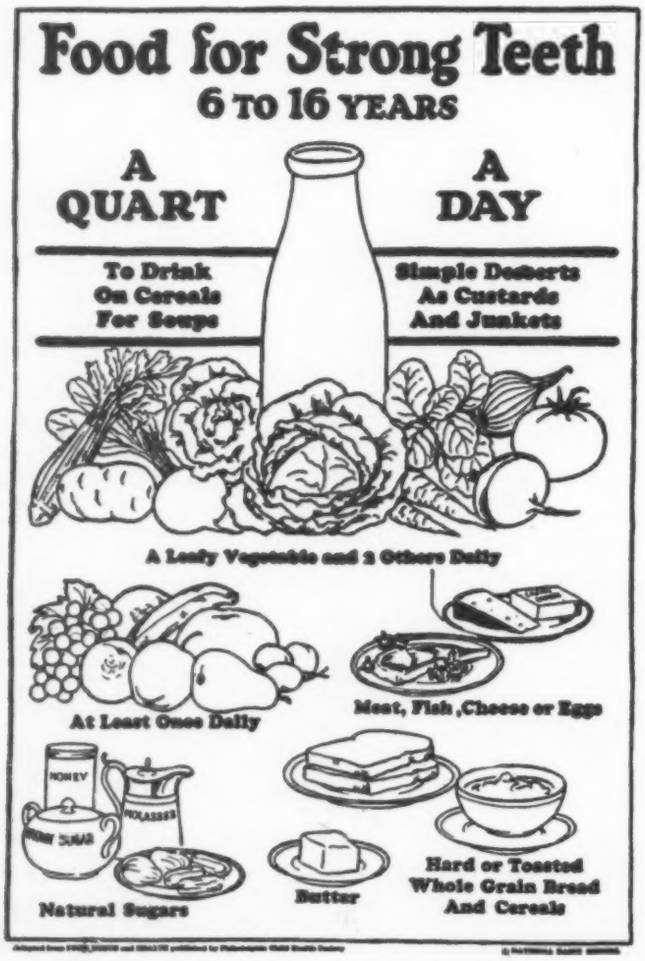
The right kinds of food for school children are temptingly displayed in the Cleveland school cafeterias.

ments has fulfilled its obligation in providing a noonday meal for its pupils. Most schools feel that they want to do more than merely to make good, nourishing food available for their pupils. They are now convinced that the lunch room offers equal opportunity with the classroom for educating the pupils in wholesome food and health habits.

With the lunch room as an accepted center for teaching nutrition and health, definite programs are planned. In some schools this is under the direction of the lunch room supervisor, while in others it is left to the initiative of the director in charge of the lunch room. Again it may be a part of the general health work of the school.

The director of the lunch room seems to be the logical person to assume the portion of the health work that may be taught through the service of food. She may even be the one to direct the complete health program throughout the school. Since her training has been in food, nutrition and health, she is well prepared to assume this responsibility.

For the lunch room director who undertakes to teach nutrition and health through her organization, the first prerequisite is a firm belief that the children need training in health and food habits and that her lunch room offers an opportunity to make a valuable contribution to the health program. She must believe that children should have daily at least a quart of milk, a raw fruit, a vegetable other than potato, whole grain cereals, a protein food and only simple desserts, to supply calories adequate for their daily needs. If she questions the value of these simple rules so generally accepted, she will fail to convince the children that they will gain something by choosing a lunch of green vegetables, fruits, milk, whole wheat bread and butter. If the teacher who has spent her college years in the department of mathematics or English is to reorganize her train of thought and method of teaching to include the principles of health and nutrition then those who have had their training in the field of home economics must do this first.


Food for Strong Teeth
6 TO 16 YEARS
A QUART A DAY
To Drink On Cereals For Soups
Simple Desserts As Custards And Junkets
A Leafy Vegetable and 2 Others Daily
At Least Once Daily
Meat, Fish, Cheese or Eggs
HONEY
MOLASSES
Natural Sugars
Butter
Hard or Toasted Whole Grain Bread And Cereals

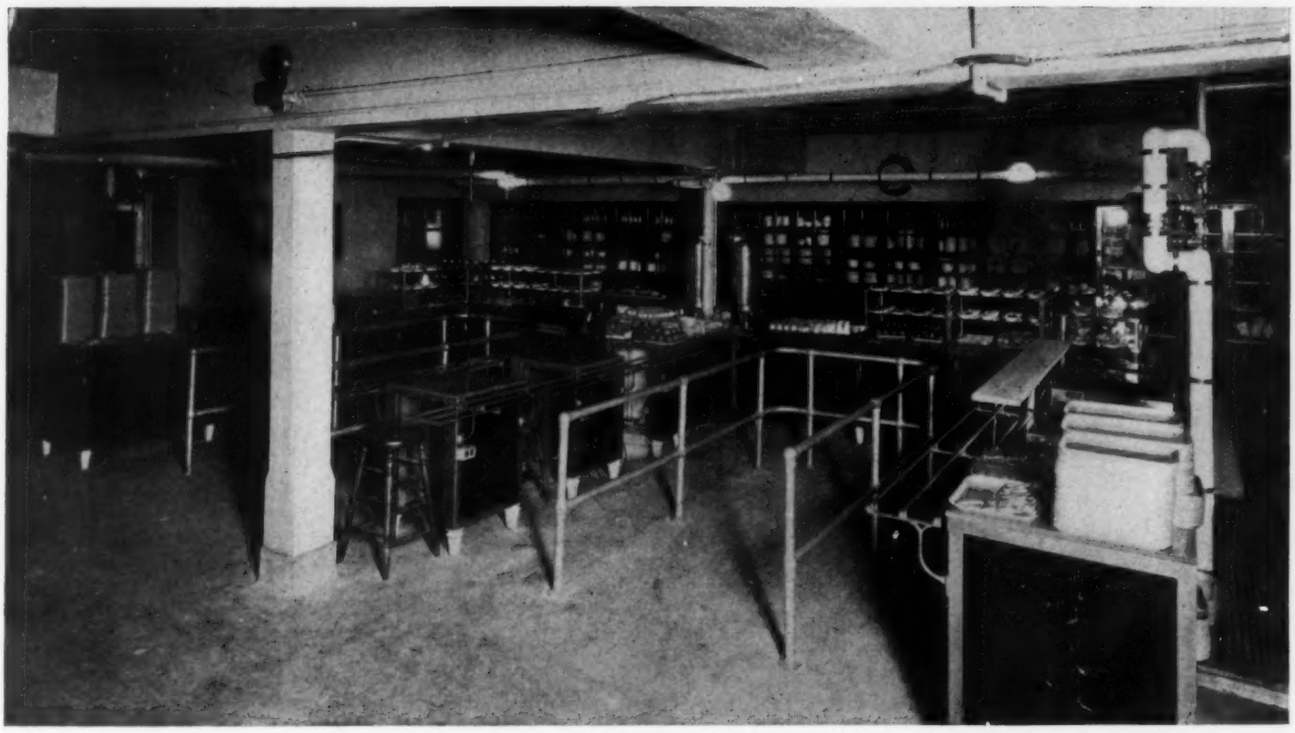
Posters help in the correct selection of foods.

High Standards of Food Preparation Needed

The director must have high standards of food preparation. Can she expect children to buy in the cafeteria foods poorly prepared? The sales of green vegetables will be increased if the vegetables have been properly cooked. Cabbage, one of the cheapest vegetables, is valuable for its antiscorbutic properties, for its iron as well as for its calcium and vitamin content. This vegetable more than any other shows the effects of improper cooking. It may appear on the cafeteria counter as a pale green and white product of delicate flavor, universally liked, or as one dark brown in color, with a strong, objectionable odor and flavor, that makes little or no appeal to the child as he passes the counter. The form in which it appears depends wholly on the method and time of cooking.

Salads Should Be Attractive

Salads may not be a popular food with school children. Perhaps they do not have them at home and for this reason have never learned to eat them. Perhaps to the child who counts his allowance for lunch in pennies it seems he is not getting the most for his money. Since salads offer a convenient, attractive and appetizing way to add the raw fruits and vegetables to the diet the problem lies in educating the child to eat them. Although the school lunch room must be self-supporting, it is not a profit making enterprise. The aim is to cover only the actual cost of the food plus the operating expenses. There are foods that can be sold at a profit sufficient to cover these expenses, so that salads might well be one of the foods served at actual cost or even slightly below cost.



Another neatly arranged cafeteria in one of the Cleveland schools.

It is important that the salads be crisp and as large as the food budget will permit. The method of garnishing salads and the way they are placed on the counter are likewise factors that influence their sale. It is quite important that the child shall pass the salads before he passes the desserts. A plate lunch or a grouping of foods, one of which is a salad, sold at a price somewhat lower than if the same foods were selected separately, will help to get the children to eat salads as part of their noonday lunch. It will be found that once the habit is established the increased sales will continue.

What can be more attractive or tempting on the counter than fresh fruits? They should not be in one place only on the counters or in small quantities, but they should be so arranged that the child will pass the fruits three or four times on his way through the lines. The baskets of bright red apples, yellow oranges and ripe bananas can be made irresistible even to the child who started out with his mind set to spend his pennies for candy. Fruit may well be sold at cost, and the operating expenses carried by some of the foods that children receive a generous supply of at home.

"One Glass of Milk on Every Tray"

Let one slogan of the lunch room be, "At least one glass of milk on every tray." Every child should have a quart of milk each day and the lunch room director should see to it that every child is getting at least one glass while he is eating under her supervision. Needless to say, the milk should be at all times up to standard in cleanliness as well as in butter fat content. The children will like it better and be more willing to buy it if it is served cold. If a child has not included in his lunch a glass of milk then those in charge of the lunch room should most certainly see that he has an equivalent amount of milk in some milk made dish, such as a cream soup, cocoa, creamed vegetables or milk desserts. The ideal standard, however, is a glass of milk in addition to the dishes prepared with milk.

Social Conditions Should Be Studied

Since the school lunch room is actually responsible for one meal a day only and has no direct control over the other two, which the child receives at his home, it is important that the social conditions of the children who eat in the lunch room be studied. What are they going to have for their breakfast and dinner? Will these two meals so complement the noonday meal that the child's daily diet will have calories, protein, minerals and vitamins sufficient for his needs? Will the school's principles of nutrition and health carry over into the home and in any way influence the type of food that will be served in the homes of the children? It is part of the duty of nutrition workers to devise ways and means for carrying over into the home life of the child the rules of nutrition and health to which a goodly

portion of the school program is devoted.

The director may check the trays as the children pass the counter. This, if done with tact and judgment, is helpful. She must always be reasonable in her requirements. Concessions may need to be made to-day for better results to-morrow. In the large lunch room where as many as two or three thousand children pass through the lines this becomes a time consuming proposition as well as a very trying one, especially if those in charge attempt to talk against the noise that is unavoidable in such a situation. To overcome this, there should be at hand slips of medium weight paper on which have been printed in large type definite, concise statements such as, "You need a glass of milk," "You need a green vegetable" or "Buy an apple, a banana or an orange." These slips may be quickly placed on the tray as the pupil passes and have been found to be effectual.

Posters are always useful and add to the attractiveness of the lunch room. These should point out a definite, scientific nutrition or health principle. It is well to use the posters not only in the lunch room but throughout the building. It also must be borne in mind that a poster loses much of its value if it stays in one place too long.

Emphasize Special Foods

One week milk and milk products such as cottage cheese, American cheese and ice cream may be stressed throughout the school. The art department may contribute to the campaign by making interesting and beautiful posters that tell the facts about these products and visualize their benefits in a way that stimulates their use. At another time the relative value of different foods may be the topic. Posters showing milk and cereals, a salad of fruit and lettuce with bread and cheese, a dish of ripe bananas and milk, an apple and nut sandwich—all cheap and correct combinations—give suggestions for selecting the noon lunch.

Establish Connection With Homes

Plan to send some sort of material home to the parents. It may be that this can be done only once during the year, but at least it establishes a connection with the home. This may take the form of an attractive poster on which have been printed the health rules, a guide to simple meal planning or a few recipes for simple dishes in the preparation of which milk is used. It may be a Christmas greeting card, as it was in one school. The card was of bright red paper, the design had been worked out by the art department and the printing had been done by the pupils. In addition to the Christmas greeting it carried on the opposite side a few suggestions for the feeding and daily routine of the pupil during the vacation week. A card was placed on each tray. In another school an attractive health calendar was designed by the art department and put out by the classes in block printing. This was sent to the home address of each pupil.

The hope is that school lunch rooms of the future will not be merely places where the children may buy food at a reasonable price but that they will be definitely a part of the school organization, carrying their portion of the school's educational responsibility to the pupil and making the contribution they are admirably equipped to make to the health program of the school.

The Progress of Education in the Near East

Attention has recently been called to two new universities that have been created in the Near East. One, the University of Saloniki, Saloniki, Greece, began with fifteen professors and one hundred students, and offers the classical studies. A chair of Hebrew was created here in 1927, and it is intended to transfer the Superior School of Agriculture of the University of Athens to this institution and to create a section for veterinary study.

An article in *School and Society* states that this is a governmental organization financed by a tax of 3 per cent on the customs duty of the merchandise imported through Saloniki, by gifts, tuition fees and aid from the central government. The professors are appointed by the ministry at Athens.

The other of the two schools is the Hebrew University at Jerusalem, which consists of a chemical institute and a microbiological institute. From time to time during the last forty years efforts have been made to operate a university at this place. It is believed that the present organization will be successful. Its purpose is to bring an inspiring influence into the life of the Jewish peoples and their civilization, to provide a working place for Jewish scholars and scientists, to contribute to the revival of the Hebrew language and to assist in the material development and expansion of Palestine.

What Can America Learn From Europe Educationally?

Americans need to know certain European manifestations to understand better the newer education in their own country, an end toward which both the Geneva and Elsinore conferences will contribute

By PROF. W. CARSON RYAN, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

OF THE thousands of Americans who are to be in Europe this summer, a large proportion will be teachers and school officers. Many others will go who have no direct professional connection with schools but who are nevertheless interested in education. Hundreds, possibly thousands, are going over for the specific purpose of attending the biennial conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, Geneva, Switzerland, July 25 to August 3, the New Education Fellowship Conference, Elsinore, Denmark, August 8 to 22, or the meeting of the World Adult Education Association, Cambridge, England, a few days later.

Practical Answer Is Needed

In the face of this summer exodus of American educators to Europe arises a wholly practical question that really needs to be answered: What, if anything, can America learn educationally from Europe?

Of course, there are some educators who are quite convinced that Americans can learn nothing from Europe, in education especially. When Doctor Learned brought down a storm upon his head by his bulletin, "The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe," one could not but wonder whether the trouble was caused by the things he said so much as by his hardihood in suggesting that we could possibly find anything in Europe to regard with satisfaction and hopefulness. Without doubt Professor Judd and others who valiantly opposed Doctor Learned had a real point to make about the American philosophy of education, but there were signs that some of us were merely showing again our old habit of defense in the face of anything that questioned our superiority. In this article I am assuming that we have on the whole recovered from this particular type of juvenile survival and are ready to learn from Europe, provided Europe has anything to teach us in education.

First of all Americans need to know something about the organization of education in other countries. Such knowledge will not necessarily result in a direct contribution to American educational procedure, but it will certainly give us a better basic understanding of what we are trying to accomplish in education and it will in the meantime protect us from a dangerous provincialism.

"Foreign education and comparative education offer a wealth of opportunity for men and women who are studying education," says James F. Abel, foreign specialist, United States Bureau of Education, in the March issue of *School Life*. Mr. Abel writes in the true spirit of an educational agency that for many years, through having Anna Tolman Smith on its staff, interpreted foreign educational affairs with an amazing insight and skill. But present day Americans have been rather too impatient. They have not always followed Mr. Abel's advice about understanding education in other countries, although the Educational Yearbook of the International Institute is making it possible to do this in a manner hitherto out of the question.

Lack Knowledge of European Conditions

In 1925 I went to Edinburgh, Scotland, as a delegate from the National Education Association to the conference of the World Federation of Education Associations. My delight over the assignment, however, was somewhat dampened by the fact that lack of knowledge in America of the elements of educational organization abroad put the American delegates in the position of having to insist upon something that was impossible under European conditions. The fact that delegates from other countries were likewise uninformed about our American educational organization hardly excused us. We spent a great deal of time and effort in educating ourselves to European educational situations when we ought to have known about them before we went.

The same thing was true of the work of several

of the most important sections of the Edinburgh conference. After several sessions of the elementary section, it gradually dawned upon the assembly that the very words, "elementary school," did not have the same significance to representatives from the different countries. At the present time particularly, when nearly every European nation is experimenting with changes in the upward reach of the elementary, middle or intermediate school, when it is impossible to use terms that will be mutually understood by any two countries, it is especially important that we study educational organization in foreign countries.

Study of Other Countries Helpful

Learning about educational organization and provision in other countries may make us only more enthusiastic devotees of our own. But we shall at least be more intelligent devotees. My admiration of certain American educational institutions has increased through my having seen other types abroad. Recent developments in American primary schools appeal to me all the more because I have seen what I regard as a dangerous acceptance of large numbers in classes in Europe, although last year an English visitor and I saw conventional and crowded conditions in an Eastern American state that were just as bad as any I had seen abroad. I have become a much more emphatic believer in the American public high school by my visits to countries where, until recently at least, a wholly opposite theory of educational selection has prevailed.

Gains, however, must not be merely negative in this business of learning from Europe. Positive gains there are. At both Geneva and Elsinore there will be evidences of a new Europe, not to say a new world, which few Americans have any acquaintance with. The Geneva meeting is likely to be the larger, partly because accommodations are easier to secure, partly because the New Education group tries to keep its meetings small enough for conference purposes. At Geneva the emphasis will be on the administrative side of education, with international understanding as the definite task to be considered. Here is a chance for something worth while to be accomplished, for a world understanding to be reached, which will actually have an effect in the classrooms of all countries.

American schools are more in need of a genuine international understanding than the most of us care to admit. The National Education Association and educational groups generally in the United States are headed in the right direction. They pass resolutions and they apparently accept the idea of a better relationship among the peoples of the world. But it is a long way from this stage to that of a participating understanding that goes to each classroom.

One of the tour agencies this year received a letter from an American teacher who objected because the agency had routed its people by English ships. She explained just how bad this was without seeming to realize that world acquaintance would not be helped particularly if the nationals of a given country always insisted upon ships of that country to travel on. We all like to travel on our own ships, of course, but to start international acquaintance by any such nationalistic gesture as this teacher suggested makes one feel that the task of creating better international understanding has hardly begun. American schools and American boys and girls need the kind of teachers and school administrators who know other peoples of the world at first hand.

In one specifically educational field, however, America needs help from Europe. There are signs that a "new education" is on its way. This is no place to argue the point, to discuss whether or not anything can really be "new," as Sir John Adams reminds us, or to worry too much over the validity of such terms as "the new schools" or "progressive education." The fact remains that Europe at the present moment offers an unusual opportunity to explore the new education.

Genuine Stirring in Education Noted

That there is a genuine stirring in education any impartial observer must admit. In the United States one sees it in the growth of experimental schools; in the almost feverish discussion of the so-called newer psychology and mental hygiene by organized groups of parents; in the national society's yearbook of two years ago, the revolutionary character of which few people appeared to realize; in the almost equally radical 1929 yearbook on preschool and parental education, which contains material that if applied to other fields would leave little of the present American educational content or method; in the rapid but sound expansion of the Progressive Education Association and in public as well as professional interest in such deliberately challenging books as Rugg and Shumaker's "The Child-Centered School." At Geneva there will be section meetings that will show clearly the tremendous effects these new educational ideas and practices are having, and at Elsinore the whole meeting will necessarily be in the spirit of the new education.

I am not comparing the two meetings with any intention of favoring one at the expense of the other. Each has its separate field, and each is of

immeasurable importance in its field. It is especially fortunate that there has been sufficient statesmanship in both groups to make them seek to work together instead of apart. In 1925 a few Americans found their way from Edinburgh down to Heidelberg where the New Education Fellowship was holding its conference. In 1927 the two meetings came at about the same time, but on different continents, and those in charge exchanged friendly greetings between Toronto, Canada, and Locarno, Switzerland.

Conferences Carefully Planned

This year the two conferences have been carefully planned with relation to each other, and the American student of educational movements who wishes to get the whole picture will go from Geneva to Elsinore, spending full time at both conferences. Both will be never-to-be-forgotten experiences in cooperation. At both the American visitor will see representatives of nearly all if not all of the nations of the world. Every organization of teachers of any national or regional significance will have delegates at Geneva, and nearly every school of the new type will send delegates to Elsinore. At Geneva there will be official representatives of the millions of teachers and administrative officers in the state schools throughout the world who, according to Ross Finney, are making the future as truly as soldier and diplomat have made the past. At Elsinore one will find the people who are making the new education everywhere—from Bedales in England, one of the pioneers of the new schools, from the *Odenwaldschule* in Germany, from similar schools in France and from the new schools in every land.

The New Education Fellowship has no monopoly of the ideas of the new education, but it is frankly the protagonist of change, as its name indicates, whereas the World Federation is made up of the established educational groups studying proposed changes to see how many of them can be applied in the world's immediate and ultimate educational programs. Both organizations are comparatively new. The World Federation came into being at San Francisco in 1923, and the American who headed it then is still the president. He is Dr. A. O. Thomas of Maine. The New Education Fellowship began in a humble way at Calais in 1921, when people from a few of the new schools in the countries lately at war made up their minds that if there was to be a world in which animosities were supplanted by friendships there would have to be new kinds of schools. A somewhat larger group met at Montreux in 1923. At Heidelberg in 1925 they had become a congress, and took as their theme, "The Release of Creative Energy in the Child," and this at a time when most schools were interested, not in releasing energy, but in suppressing it. Two years later, at Locarno, they ventured to try to solve the problem of "The True Meaning of Freedom in Education." For Denmark this summer they are building their program about "The Newer Psychology and the Curriculum."

It is important for us to know more about these things than we now do. We need especially to know certain European manifestations the better to understand the newer education in America. We can hardly afford, for example, to refer scornfully to Freud and Jung and Adler, merely because we are complacent about our achievements in measurement and have not bothered to look into some other things in educative psychology. We must be informed critics at least. We cannot justly talk of Europe's lack of a conception of democratic society and of education unless we have examined the new as well as the old in England, Germany, France, Italy and the other countries. We should not praise or condemn progressive education in America or in Russia without making some attempt to see for ourselves the philosophy that underlies it, the needs of the people that brought it forth, the sincerity and the earnestness with which the old and the new alike are being defended or opposed in every quarter.

Profit by Others' Experiments

We shall know more than we now do about our urgent problem of adolescent education and articulation if we study English central schools, the German Youth movement and the Italian Balilla. Our own uncertain adult education movement can hardly fail to profit by a look into the London County Council's experiments in adult education built about skills rather than books. Decroly's *"L'ecole active,"* England's development of Dalton and Montessori, Russia's out-of-school education and Turkey's effort to modernize over night, all have extraordinary valuable lessons for the American who would solve his problems in education with anything like the world wisdom they demand.

"What, if anything, can America learn educationally from Europe?" The answer to this question is: "Go to Europe this summer. Visit European schools, especially of the new type. But, above all, attend the conferences at Geneva and Elsinore and learn with what carefulness, humility and skill European pioneers in world understanding and in human relationships are attempting through education to build a new world."

Two New Schools Widen Educational Activities of Michigan Cities

The Dr. Charles H. Oakman School, Detroit, will give handicapped children the benefits of scientific care; the Robert Trombly School, Grosse Pointe, is the result of careful study of modern trends in elementary education

By NEAL M. DUNNING, Smith, Hinchman & Grylls, Architects and Engineers, Detroit, and Professor A. B. MOEHLMAN, Department of Education, University of Michigan

THROUGH the combined efforts of the board of education and the department of health, Detroit is making generous provision for the care, both physical and educational, of its crippled children. Recognizing the importance of adequate accommodations, the city has provided the Dr. Charles H. Oakman School, which is designed and equipped to care for 300 crippled children of elementary and intermediate-school ages.

Serious study was necessary on the part of the board of education and the architects and engineers to develop a plan for this school that would provide for the children's physical welfare as well as for detailed educational work. It was finally decided that a one-story structure of the open court type would reduce travel to a minimum.

The fact that one complete block was allowed for the building made it possible for the architects and engineers to include four entrances, one in the center of each elevation. The porticos at these entrances make it easy for the children to be taken from the busses at any one of the four doors to the school. The entrance detail and floor plans were carefully worked out so that the children would have to climb no steps, inside or outside.

Inside the building, corridors thirteen feet wide have walls of buff colored glazed hollow tile. The ceiling is of cream colored concrete and the cement floor is covered with red linoleum. Recessed in the corridor walls are light gray individual lockers for the pupils. Handrails are provided on either side of the corridor to assist the children. At the end of each corridor a large mirror affords the child a full view of himself. The mirror is a guide to the child in correcting wrong posture. All doors are three and a half feet wide.

The primary purpose of the school is to correct the physical deformities of the children so that when they finish the eighth grade they will be able to take their places with normal children in regular schools. With this thought in mind, the school board and architects, with the cooperation of private physicians and hospitals, planned to provide a clinic designed and equipped to give the children the benefits of scientific care.

Offices are provided for an orthopedic surgeon and nurse. Near the doctor's office are the boys' and girls' dressing rooms with adjoining baths, where the children are prepared for their examinations or treatments. A special room is pro-

Architect's drawing of the Dr. Charles H. Oakman School, Detroit.

Attractive grounds surround the Robert Trombly Elementary School, Grosse Pointe, Mich.

vided for plaster casts and x-ray pictures, with a connecting storeroom for plaster materials. The convalescent children may be cared for in the infirmary. The tank room is provided with special apparatus for swimming lessons, muscle training and corrective gymnasium work. There are special rooms for physiotherapy and heliotherapy. A large storeroom is provided for the supplies and apparatus. All the rooms of the clinic open onto the inner court, eighty feet wide and twelve feet long, which will be attractive with its formal garden.

Going hand in hand with the physical care for the child is the necessary academic and industrial training. The school is graded from kindergarten through the ninth grade. All the facilities of a six-hour school are provided.

Classrooms Have Fine Acoustics

Across the corridor from the clinic are the classrooms for younger children. Painted cinder block partitions wainscoted with glazed hollow tile that separate the classrooms have fine acoustical properties. The cove base and window stools are of glazed hollow tile. The floor is of wood. Each classroom opens on a terrace, and steel doors included in the bays make the terrace accessible for outdoor instruction when the weather is favorable.

The circular bay of the kindergarten is featured in the rear wall of the court. Steel casement doors on either side of the bay open on the court. When the building is completed, the kindergarten will be unusually attractive, with its pictorial tile walls, fireplace, built in shelving and cupboards. A small playroom for the younger children adjoins the kindergarten.

Provision has been made for prevocational groups, covering a variety of vocations. Domestic science rooms are across the court from the clinic. The sewing classes have a special fitting room and a storeroom equipped with cupboards to take care of sewing materials. An attractive dining room and pantry adjoin the sewing and cooking rooms.

A large well lighted room is devoted to the arts and crafts. Here various types of handwork are taught as a basis for future vocational training. This classroom opens on the terrace and is finished similar to other classrooms. An adjoining storeroom is equipped with specially designed cupboards. The manual training and printing room is near the trades' entrance. Rooms for upper classes are near the industrial group so that the amount of travel is reduced. A library, centrally located, is convenient for the children in the upper classes.

Toilet rooms and locker rooms with recessed lockers have been provided at the four inside corners. These rooms have glazed hollow tile walls, terrazzo floors and marble stall partitions and are easily accessible from all parts of the building. The plan also provides for several storerooms of large dimensions to take care of wheel chairs, cots, blankets and supplies. A rack for crutches will be one of the many special cupboard details.

The projecting four corners of the building feature the cot room, the playroom, the lunch room and the auditorium. The cot room near the clinic will be flooded with light and air. A large playroom opposite the main façade will be equally delightful. The lunch room at the rear is near the trades' entrance and is large enough to accommodate the full capacity of the school at one time.

The auditorium, on the opposite corner, is provided with a separate entrance for public use. A ramp from the corridor makes the stage acces-

sible to children in wheel chairs. Special design of the stage front eliminates all danger of wheel chairs running off the platform. Special emphasis will be placed on the furnishings and decorations of this room. It is to be equipped for motion pictures.

The building has been planned and designed to provide the most sanitary and healthful conditions for crippled and handicapped children. The modern design is adapted to large bays for windows with small mullions. The concrete splay at the outside face of the piers allows the maximum of light to be admitted. Mankato stone trim is used to contrast with the red brick of the exterior walls. The roof is of slate.

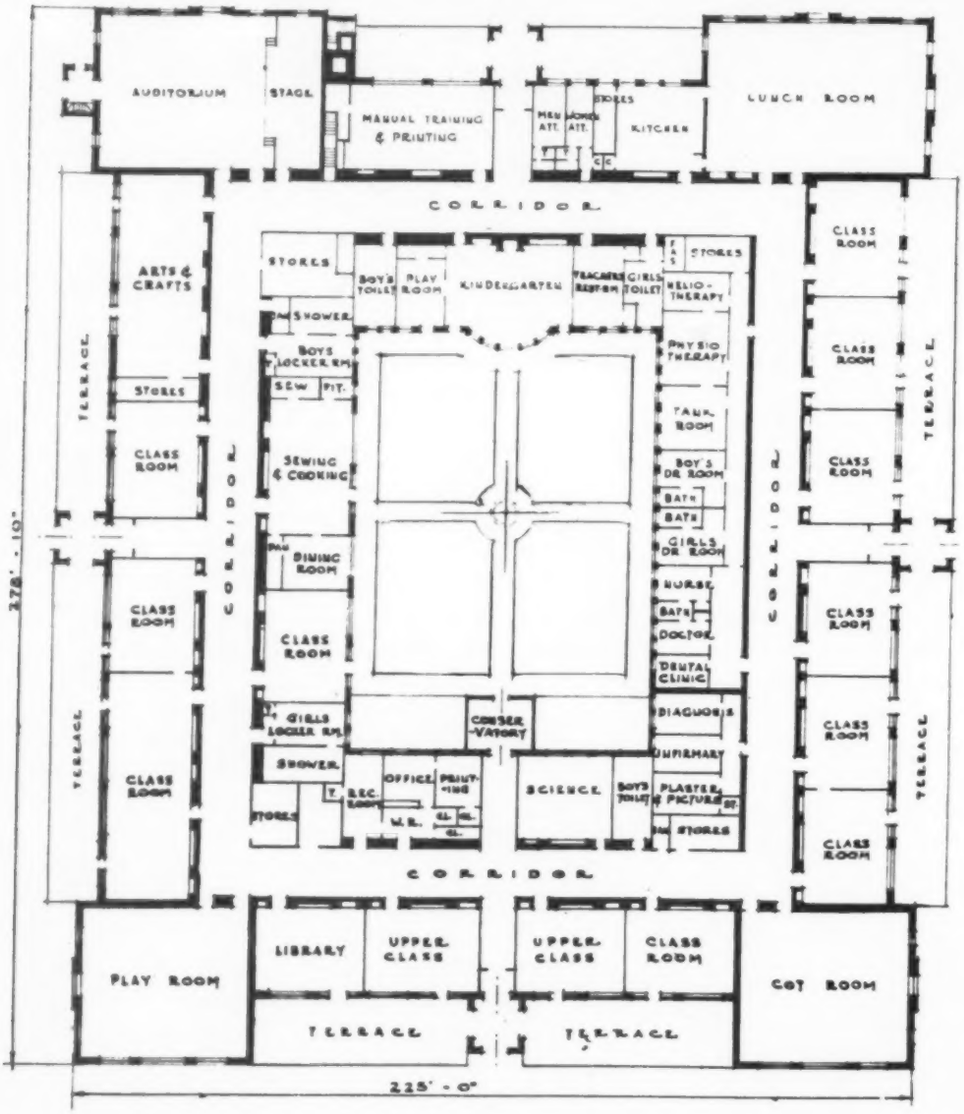
The building is of fireproof construction. The boiler house has been made a separate unit to ensure protection against explosion and fire.

Designed in domestic Gothic, the Robert Trombly Elementary School, recently built, graces a splendid residential section of Grosse Pointe, Mich., well known suburb of Detroit.

The exterior walls are of red brick with stone trim. The roof is of selected slate, graded from green at the ridge to purple at the edge. Copper conductors, metal louvers in the dormers over the piers and an occasional bay are well studied details. The weathervane surmounting a metal covered cupola suggests the schoolma'am of 1890 wielding the rod in an effort to coerce the child.

The completed building has a capacity of 960 pupils. The superstructure is of reinforced concrete units, the second of which will be added when the growth of the village requires it. In working out the plans, due consideration was given to those objectives that are guiding the reorganization and development of elementary education.

The auditorium, forty feet by sixty feet, is featured in the center wing of the main façade. It is easily accessible, and may be used by the public while work is being carried on in other sections



Plans of the main floor of the Dr. Charles H. Oakman School, Detroit, show how carefully the departments were designed to facilitate travel of crippled children from room to room. All of the rooms used by pupils are on one floor, thus eliminating all stairs.

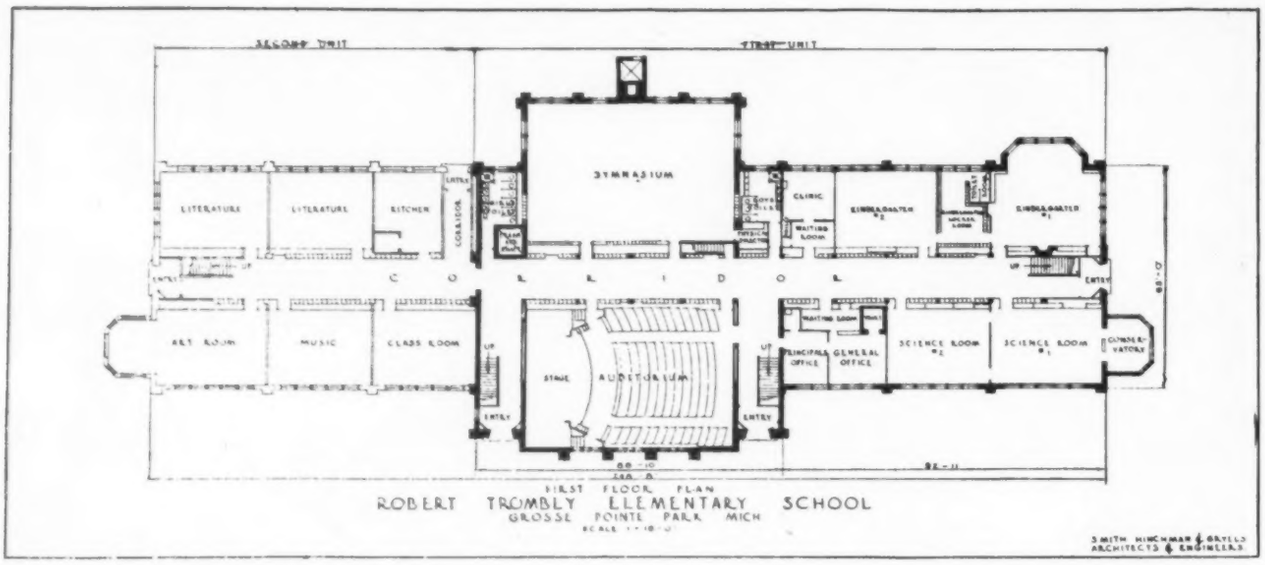
Ornamental tiles add a colorful note to the Trombly kindergarten.

of the building. The auditorium has a wainscot of oak paneling five and a half feet high, and an English plaster ceiling. Acoustical material was used on the side walls and ceiling. The medium sized stage is equipped for motion pictures and for disappearing footlights and color lights as well. The auditorium is heated and ventilated as a unit independent of the rest of the building.

The gymnasium opposite the auditorium is of similar dimensions. The walls are of salt glazed brick and acoustical material is used on the ceiling. Lockers are recessed in the walls.

Corridors twelve feet wide terminate in stairways illuminated by natural light. Recessed lockers for pupils have been installed in the marble wainscot on either side of the corridors.

Wainscoting of oak lends dignity to the auditorium of the Robert Trombly Elementary School.



A small suite of administration offices is on the first floor adjacent to the main entrance. Across the corridor from these is the clinic which is also convenient to the gymnasium.

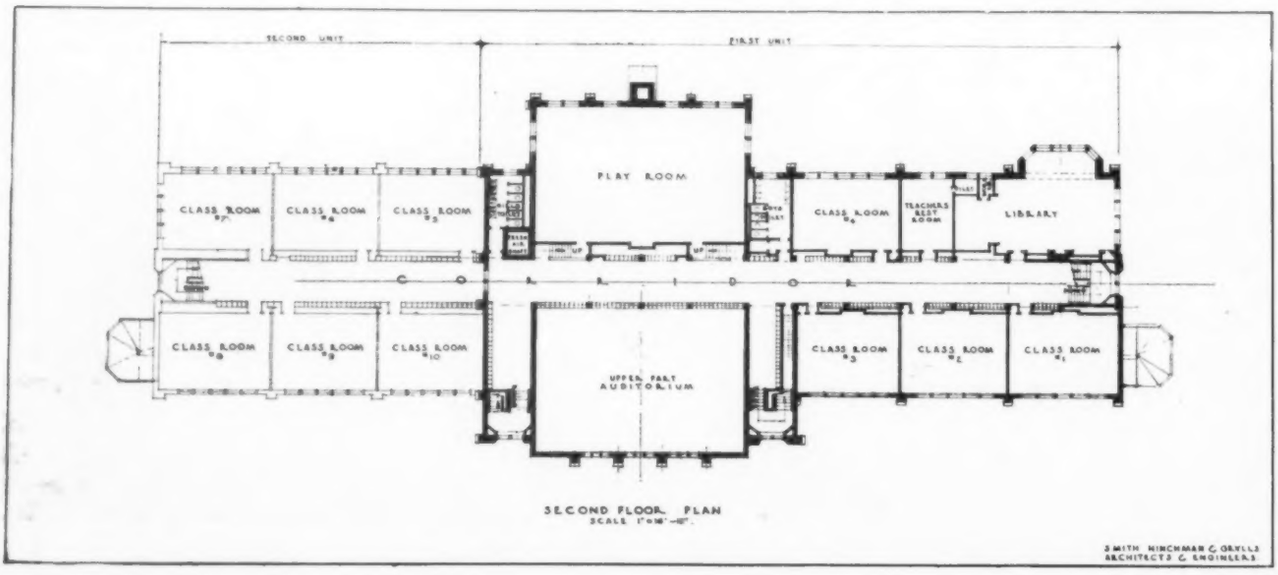
The first unit of the first floor plan includes two science rooms. Opening off one of the rooms is the conservatory bay which is specially heated. Across the corridor from the science rooms are the two kindergartens. Special emphasis was placed on the layout, the decorations and the furnishing of these rooms. In the ornamental wall tiles that surround the fireplace opening and in the niche where the drinking fountain stands are pictured characters from nursery rhymes and from stories of childhood. Built in cupboards with sliding doors take care of the kindergarten supplies. Cork wall panels provide space for posters and periodical decorations. Between the two kindergartens is a kindergarten locker room with a toilet room equipped with modern plumbing fixtures especially designed for juveniles.

The second unit of the first floor plan provided two literature rooms, a well lighted art room, music department, one classroom and a kitchen near the trades' entrance. The kitchen was placed across the corridor from the gymnasium that it might be available for public banquets as well as for serving lunches to the children.

Above the gymnasium is a playroom of ample dimensions. The salt glaze brick walls and ceiling of sound absorbent material were used in this room.

The completed second floor plans include ten classrooms, a teachers' rest room and a library. A homelike atmosphere is created by the many special features in the library. The shelving is well designed and window seats have been built in. The fireplace opening is surrounded by colorful tiles.

The grounds have been landscaped and planted with shrubbery especially chosen to harmonize with the setting of a residential neighborhood.



How to Develop and How to Use a School Budget*

Financial statements should be so presented as to picture for the taxpayer the way his money is being spent to carry out the purpose for which he gave it

By E. T. STRETCHER, Clerk, Board of Education, Portland, Ore.

TO THE average citizen, the word "budget" means but little. The entire subject of budgets is so comparatively recent that it is within the memory of most of us that our national government has undertaken to handle its expenditures on a scientific basis, although it is perhaps the largest spender among the governmental agencies of the world.

Webster defines the word "budget" in the following terms: "a bag or sack with its contents; hence a stock or store; an accumulation;" and illustrates the definition thus: "The annual financial statement that the British chancellor of the exchequer makes in the House of Commons. It comprehends a general view of the finances of the country with a proposed plan of taxation for the ensuing year."

What Is Required of a Budget

In this country modern business has combined all of these definitions. It requires the budget to outline the financial policy for the ensuing year and also expects it to be based on the scientific principles upon which all successful business is built. It represents the financial outline for the continuance of departments in institutions already existent and also for the successful carrying out of projects of expansion and development that have formerly existed only in the minds of the executives. The various items in the budget indicate in a concrete way which activities are to be emphasized and which are merely being continued. The budget is so complete a picture of the system as a whole that it requires of the budget maker not only a knowledge of finance but a thorough acquaintance and sympathy with all of the phases involved.

The budget is divided into two parts: first, the development of a detailed school budget, and second, its use. It is true that there is a certain time of each year when a new budget is adopted and legally put into operation, but a properly prepared budget is accumulative and is not developed in a short period of a few months or even a year. It is a summary of the various financial items that have been shaped by actual use during the preceding years, and on the basis of this past use it is presented to the school board for future guidance. The budget of each succeeding year is determined by the operation of its various items during the preceding period, and is always going through a process of continuous development because its proper administration depends upon the close coordination and intelligent cooperation of all of the divisions of the school system. Through this process of continued development, items that are not supported by real demands will be gradually eliminated and overloading will be pared down to the actual financial needs.

One of the first essentials to be recognized by a budget maker is the fact that certain phases or parts of a budget are controlled by regulation or precedent and other phases are not so controlled. For example, certains costs are based upon a schedule of salaries adopted in preceding years by a school board. These are definite, are not subject to unanticipated increases and may be accurately estimated in advance. On the other hand, certain other costs are not subject to schedule but are at the mercy of a rising and falling market and may be kept within the budget limitations only through the most economical administration. For example, the cost of artificial light in our schools will vary not only with the amount of sunlight during a given year, but also with the amount of attention teachers and janitors may give to the simple problem of the turning off and on of switches.

Means of Financing

The average budget is headed "Means of Financing" and is afterwards divided into at least the following principal classifications of disbursements: administration; capital outlay; instruction; operation and maintenance.

In discussing the means of financing, I assume

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that all cities have a well defined plan for raising the funds necessary to maintain the school system in its current form. This plan consists of collecting funds derived from either state, county or local levies or possibly a combination of all of them. As a rule, the process is well controlled by state laws, most of which have been on the statute books for a considerable period. Some of these laws have had to be modified in the light of changing conditions and growing needs and in many cases new laws have had to be enacted. The last couple of decades have presented so many new financial problems to the administrators of public functions that a city is fortunate indeed if the combination of methods used in financing a system is able to produce adequate funds.

Everyone knows that the success or failure of any institution or part of an institution depends upon the efficiency of its administration. This in the last analysis depends upon the type of man in the administration position, yet in the field of public administration the need for adequate salaries for the officials is often the hardest part in the program to sell to the general public.

Some cities are fortunate enough in having an electorate willing and able to finance a pay-as-you-go building program. When this is true, budgeting is not a difficult matter. It is more a matter of getting 100 cents value for every dollar expended on additional grounds and construction. If the finances of the city make it necessary to sell bonds, then it is a matter of debt obligation. Most bonds are now sold on the serial plan which reduces the budgeting to a mathematical certainty, computed annually.

How Salaries Are Computed

Budget items coming under instruction are usually subdivided into two classifications—salaries and supplies. As I have mentioned in one of the former paragraphs, the task of computing salaries for the teachers of a given system is not a difficult one unless the city is experiencing an unprecedented growth. In Portland we expect each teacher to carry an average pupil load regardless of whether she is teaching a single class in the regular subjects or whether as a special teacher she covers the building as a whole.

With a regular salary schedule at hand the amount required for salaries of those teachers already in the system can readily be computed for any given period or year. The number of additional teachers required to care for the growth of the city and resignations is easily estimated and the salary determined.

Some difficulties, however, arise in estimating the cost of salaries for substitutes who are needed on account of illness of regular teachers. For this item we are using an average amount from year to year; however, the balance of one year seldom equals the deficit of another.

Supplies are allocated to schools on the basis of number of pupils. This problem, as far as Oregon is concerned, is still quite simple as we have not as yet adopted a free textbook law. Although this would increase the budget item for supplies much beyond its present size, it should present no new problems because it, too, would be based upon the number of pupils and would therefore be predictable within very slight variation.

Operation and Maintenance Section

The principal items in the operation and maintenance section are fuel, light and power, salaries and supplies of custodians, water, telephone, repairs and upkeep. Economy in fuel, light and power, water and repairs, depends upon the education of a large number of employees and upon the eternal vigilance of their supervisors. Only by considerable team work on the part of the budget maker, the supervisor of custodians, the engineers and the minor employees, can a scientific budget be developed and maintained.

Such items as salaries and supplies of custodians are relatively easy to predict and administer. Our custodians are paid on a square foot basis, plus extra compensation for evening activities. The area of each building is computed from the plans in the architect's office. Hence we experience no difficulty in determining the rate of pay for a building, even in the case of a new building, before it is ready for occupancy.

In 1928, our budget for the item of salaries of janitors amounted to $260,000. Even with a building program involving a large number of classrooms, in addition to auditoriums and gymnasiums, we came within $5,000, or less than 2 per cent, of the estimated cost and this balance was due almost entirely to the fact that new buildings were not completed on scheduled time.

The importance of the proper arrangement and presentation of budget items so that they may be understandable and persuasive cannot be overestimated. It stands to reason that if the final step in the adoption of a budget is the approval of some other person or body, then both features are equally important. In a system of government like ours, this final authority is always the voter and taxpayer.

In arranging and phrasing the items in my budget, I always think, therefore, of the way this all-powerful layman will look at figures. I have always been interested in reading that the sun is

92,000,000 miles distant from the earth, but it never conveyed much meaning to me until I had a little personal experience with distance. I still cannot conceive ninety-two millions of anything, but after driving about 5,000 miles on a vacation trip, I could get a little better idea of our distance from the sun than I had before. It brought the relationship down a little closer to my size.

So it is with the average citizen and taxpayer. A mere tabulation of figures showing that $3,750,000 would be required for teachers' salaries for the ensuing fiscal year, cannot fail to leave him with the idea that the teachers are getting a lot of money. To a man getting $2,000 a year or less, $3,750,000 represents the financial distance between the earth and the sun. If, however, he has the same fact presented to him in connection with the statement of the number of teachers employed, the average salary per teacher, the average number of pupils taught per teacher, the average annual cost of instruction per pupil, then the original $3,750,000 is brought down to somewhere nearer his own size. We must never forget that to any individual, his own experience is the ruler by which he measures all things.

A successful business man in Portland, one whom I admire greatly, once said to me: "You may think it strange of me, considering the success I have made in business, but I must confess that I just cannot sit down and analyze a large detailed financial sheet." Another whose success in business has been just as outstanding, said: "A mass of figures to me is as a slap in the face."

If this is true of men accustomed to handling figures in large amounts, how much more true it is of salaried people like ourselves, to whom a $10 increase in pay is an occasion of great joy and expansion. My final recommendation therefore is that considerable thought should be given to the manner of presenting budget materials, not only to our immediate superiors, but to the public at large. Each financial statement should be broken up into small understandable sections, giving more attention to graphic explanation and less to massed figures.

Importance of Rural-School Surveys Emphasized

Rural-school surveys in the past have been made with little thought to delving into the many intricate problems that enter into the efficient administration of these institutions, according to information furnished by the Government. Personal opinions of the investigators influenced, to a certain extent, the results of the surveys, improvements were not thought of except as the demand for them arose, and little progress was made towards the development of better educational programs. Time, however, has worked changes, and to-day a rural-school survey includes detailed analytical studies in which facts revealed by scientific methods replace opinion.

Whereas in the earlier days of the rural school the survey was merely a means of determining whether the school was equipped well enough to carry on a fixed educational program, to-day the survey is accepted as a means of obtaining an unbiased analysis of educational situations that may be used as a basis for formulating programs for improvement.

That the survey is now accepted as an important feature in administrative technique in rural education is shown in the recommendation of nearly all state surveys for the establishment of divisions of research in state departments of education, and by the growing number of rural-school surveys.

Pennsylvania's Health Program for Small Schools

In one of the recent reports of the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania it is revealed that a definite program has been outlined for one teacher schools in the health projects selected for the school months. The subjects covered include cleanliness, posture and play, prevention of colds, food, safety first, remedial physical defects, communicable diseases, special habits and vacation hints with details as to their presentation in the eight elementary-school grades.

The development is explained in the *Trained Nurse and Hospital Review* by tracing the subject cleanliness through these grades. In the first grade the attention is centered on the face, neck, hands and ears. Here certain results are aimed at. In the second year the hair and nails are considered; in the third, mouth, teeth, fingers and pencils. In the fourth, prevention of tooth cavities is stressed; in the fifth, cleanliness in regard to clothes and books; in the sixth, the classroom; in the seventh, the schools, yards and surroundings are on the cleanliness program and in the eighth, the school buildings, yards, classrooms, library, gymnasium and toilets.

In the last two grades the lessons in physiology and hygiene are outlined to include cell growth and its relation to body development, comparison with weight and height charts and a study of skin and appendages.

What the New Superintendent Wants to Know

In order to conduct a school system successfully, administrators should at all times have available pertinent and up-to-date information relating to the professional and business procedures of the school

By CRAWFORD GREENE, Superintendent of Schools, Blytheville, Ark.

THE new superintendent has come to town. Perhaps there has been a short interview with his predecessor or possibly the latter has gone to his new field of work. To adjust oneself properly to a place as the head of a school system, be it large or small, it is necessary to have certain definite information. So the new superintendent starts in to gain this information.

Possibly the outgoing superintendent has been conscientious and has left the records of the system in good shape, but even then it requires a great deal of time and labor to examine the scattered data of a fairly large system and sift out the necessary and desired facts. Much time is lost that could be used profitably in solving new problems or in making new contacts in the community.

And if the departing administrator has failed to leave behind complete records, his successor must spend many more hours trying to gather from all available sources the necessary information. He will be beset with salesmen who are anxious to sell him supplies for the ensuing year, but before he can deal with them he must learn what supplies are on hand and what are already ordered, and so on throughout his entire new program.

Needs Time to Study Position

If the new superintendent has the entire summer to acquaint himself with the many details of his new position, he will be able to work out the solution of his problem satisfactorily. However, the new man often comes in with the opening of school just in sight and is flooded with the current matters that demand his attention.

He may be able to collect the minutes of the school board and from them gather much interesting information about the system, provided these have been kept accurately and fully. He may be able to gather much of the desired material from principals and teachers who have been in the system before, but often in his interviews with these persons some vital point is overlooked or the information sought is not forthcoming.

Complete annual reports of the school, prepared by the superintendent and properly filed for reference, would come in handy for a new man, but too often the annual reports are scanty in details, are given orally or are not properly filed in the archives of the school.

A superintendent brings with him past experience and knowledge of situations and problems elsewhere, but to make a success of his new venture it is necessary that he have at hand all available material about his new system.

Record of System Often Lacking

The question then arises, how is this material to be collected and what material shall be collected? How will the outgoing superintendent know just exactly what the new administrator will desire? Often the departing man does not have the time to prepare an exhaustive record of his system for the use of his successor.

There are certain standard facts about any system that an administrator should know in order to operate it successfully. Furthermore, it is necessary that he have this information to impart it to those who question him about his system, otherwise he will seem ill informed about his work.

In the May, 1928, issue of The NATION'S SCHOOLS, Dr. John Guy Fowlkes, department of education, University of Wisconsin, in answer to an inquiry regarding what a superintendent should know about the local school system, lists twenty-five basic facts that the administrator should be able to discuss. Surely the number of facts about his system that a new superintendent should be informed upon would outnumber this greatly.

I have checked over the various phases of school organizations and present herewith items of information which it seems to me an administrator should always have available. This list is

by no means exhaustive nor has it at the present time been actually tested. The information could be collected in a book and thus be in permanent form, or it could be filed in looseleaf fashion or typed and bound.

The list below, which incorporates the twenty-five items listed by Doctor Fowlkes, should be of service to superintendents in checking up on their own system for the necessary information.

Financial Data

Sources of and amount of income for past several years.

Detailed list of expenditures for past several years.

Statement of financial condition of system at present, including current indebtedness and assets, bonded indebtedness, sinking funds.

Budgets for past years and ensuing year.

Tax rate for school purposes.

Total tax rate.

Valuation in district.

Basis of valuation.

Ratio of assessed valuation to sale value.

Percentage of taxes collected.

Ratio between school expenditures and total community expenditures.

Itemized cost per child: elementary school, junior high school, senior high school.

Pupils

Census: enumeration for past several years, enumeration by ages and sex, details of administration and cost.

Enrollment: by ages and sex, by grades and sex, by schools and sex.

Age-Grade Table showing: percentage over age, percentage under age, percentage normal.

Age-Progress Table showing: percentage slow, percentage fast, percentage normal.

Average Daily Attendance: elementary schools, junior high school, senior high school.

Number of Tardies: elementary school, junior high school, senior high school.

Percentage of Failures: elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, by individual teachers.

Ratio of Enrollment to Census Enumeration.

Ratio of Enrollment to Average Daily Attendance.

Testing Programs: important results of past programs, recommendations for future work.

Teachers

Number: previous years, ensuing year, distribution as to schools.

Personal record of each teacher, giving academic training, professional training, license, special qualifications, church membership, rating in past, progress, increase in salary, professional advancement.

Salary Schedule: bases and special provisions, exceptions, total salaries for coming year.

Application Files.

Standards for teachers entering system.

Teaching load by classes.

Pupil load of each teacher.

Supervisors' reports concerning each teacher.

An individual file for data relating to each teacher.

Record of teachers who were not reelected.

Summary of teachers' training: number of normal-school graduates, number with three years' college work, number with four years' work and no degree, number of college graduates, number with Master's degree, number with Ph.D.

Ratio of home teachers to total teaching staff.

Ratio of married teachers to total teaching staff.

Results of research in teaching personnel.

Records of sabbatical leave.

Record of professional reading of teachers.

Record of discussion groups.

Record of recognized creative work of teachers.

Record of teachers in line for promotion to principals.

Record of satisfactory substitute teachers.

School Board

Personnel and term of membership.

Organization and committees.

Modes of operation.

General policies.

Previous annual reports of superintendent (when filed).

Whether board is active in affairs.

Principals

Personal data same as teachers.

Outline of supervisory program.

Salary schedule.

Special abilities.

Textbooks

Texts used and when adopted.

Mode of adoption.

Supplementary texts.

Dealers of texts.

How texts are ordered.

Rules governing textbook salesmen.

General Regulations

Dates of starting and closing school.

School hours.

School holidays.

Regulations regarding leaves of absence.

Regulations regarding illness of teachers.

Regulations regarding conduct of teachers.

Regulations regarding use of athletic field.
Regulations regarding renting of auditoriums.
Special regulations affecting pupils.
Grading system: history of previous systems, date of adoption, bases for grades, distribution of grades by schools and by teachers.

Buildings and Grounds

Buildings: date of construction, type, cost of construction, cost of equipment, cost of repairs, capacity, actual enrollment, needed equipment, possible life of building, rate of insurance, amount of insurance.
Grounds: area, value, playground equipment, needs.
Building Program: map of city showing buildings and zones, map of city showing anticipated needs, remedies for present conditions, costs for new buildings, resources, building scores on a standard score card.

Organization

Graphic outline of entire system.
Details as to teachers' meetings of all types: building, sectional, general.
Sample programs.
Extra-curricular program for each school.
Copies of courses of study.

Business Management

Financial accounting, including complete details according to any standard system.
Child accounting, including complete details according to any standard system.
Supplies: purchasing—by whom, from whom, when and how, where purchases are stored.
Invoices: previous purchases, current purchases.
Personnel: clerks, janitors—assignment, training, promotion, salary schedule.

Personal Elements

Philosophy of education of outgoing superintendent.
Policies of past administration.
Public reaction to past administration.
Outstanding factors affecting school organization.
Agencies cooperative with school administration.
Prominent people favorable to and helpful to the schools.
Prominent objectors to school and reasons therefor.
Prominent features of past history of the school.
Suggestions to incoming superintendent as to policies.
Needs of schools.

Discarding the Use of Nonpromotion as an Educational Device

That the use of nonpromotion as an educational device will soon be discarded and the more powerful psychology of encouragement substituted, is the opinion of J. O. Chewning, superintendent of schools, Evansville, Ind. Mr. Chewning sets forth his ideas as follows:

"All children will be promoted every year. The schools will attempt to teach success for each pupil, according to his ability. The child will not be marked "failed." At least the school will not permit itself to be used to stamp a child a failure. School work will be adapted to the ability of the child, and nothing will be assigned to him in which he cannot succeed. There may be need of readjusting the standards fixed for him, a physical defect may stand in his way or some condition may not favor his success, but at any rate he will never be permitted to think that anything but success in school is expected of him.

"Standards need not be broken down. Every mark above 75, the passing grade, will be based strictly on merit. The children will be told that while no pupils will be failed, there is no honor in a mark of 75. Children usually have enough personal pride to respond to a situation of this kind.

Fear Is Not Constructive Motive

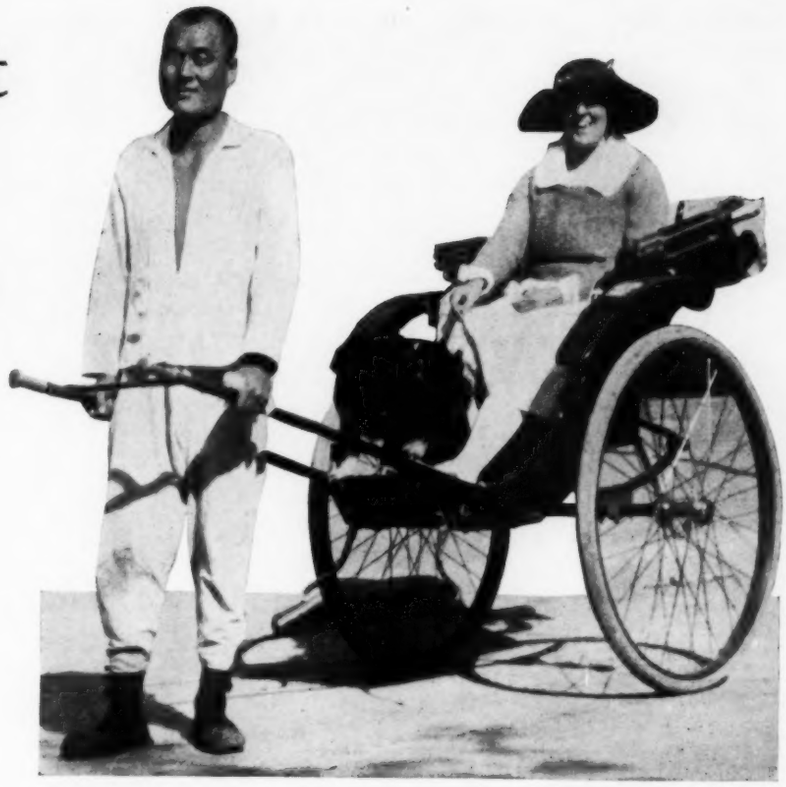
"In criticism of this proposal some teachers may say that standards are bound to collapse if the fear of failure is removed. It must be admitted that fear is sometimes a very useful instinct in that it favors self-preservation, but it is not a constructive educational motive, and it is certainly not the best attainable incentive. A healthy rivalry is a far better educational device. Anyway, the standards of a school are not maintained by those who might be influenced greatly by fear of failure.

"Studies of the subsequent records of failures show that very few improved by going over the work a second time. How much of the tragedy of failure in school could be removed by the application of the psychology of encouragement. Make the children happy in their school life is not a slogan of 'soft' pedagogy. No proposal, not even this one, will work in all cases. There is no panacea for all school troubles. Some children are born so 'short,' or face such difficulties, that any success seems impossible, but if educators will talk success, think success and plan only for success more children will be lifted from the failure class than was ever possible under the old system."

East and West Meet in an American School in China

By MARY SMITH MARTIN,

Tientsin, China



FROM the moment we run down the front steps of our house shouting at the top of our lungs, "Jopee-lienga," for two rickshas, our school day is different from the school days at home.

China is the only place where one can shout lustily on the street and still be considered a perfect lady, and I take pleasure in opening my mouth and shrieking for a ricksha two blocks away.

The ricksha coolies come at a gallop, several racing to see which can arrive first and get the few coppers that are our fare to the school building. A snail-like pace is adopted, however, once anyone is in the ricksha.

The things we see and pass on our way to school are of course very different from those we were accustomed to see at home.

The French Mariat priests or Brothers go sailing by on motor cycles on their way to school. Their long hair and voluminous black capes flying in the wind offer an incongruous combination of modern and ancient styles.

Next we pass a Chinese school and the voices of the children are heard shrilling out their lessons exactly like a thousand chattering myna birds. It is all like an extract from the geography we used to study at home, which told about the Chinese way of studying.

The English school is next door to the Chinese school and there we see athletic looking boys, dressed in the Cub and Boy Scout uniforms, ready for soccer, cricket and other English sports. The schoolmasters are out with the boys and take an active part in their sports.

As we pass from the French Concession into the British Concession the change in the architecture of the houses is noticeable. The French houses have big iron gates and rambling architecture. The British houses are more stolid looking, being plain brick buildings with many chimneys. The houses have no yards or green lawns and all are walled in from the street.

Picturesque Other-World Customs Noted

Every day we pass Chinese coolies, drawing carts; fat Chinese men, riding far back on their small donkeys; Chinese gentlemen, carrying their birds in cages as a sign of leisure and gentility; street vendors, rattling paper gongs advertising their wares; street barbers, with their whole barber shop slung over their shoulders; food vendors, shaking together their gambling sticks in order to lure some passer-by to gamble for a piece of chow. All are noisy and happy.

When we arrive at the school building we are greeted by the amahs (nurses), bringing their small charges to school. "Good-morning, Amah." "Good morning, Missee." The amahs are always amusing to us, with their blue coolie cloth coats, black couzas (trousers), and with one of "Missee's" old hats, tilted at a rakish angle, as they stump cheerfully along on their small bound feet. The children clinging to their brown hands

look like little mushrooms, with their large sun helmets overtopping their small bodies.

We usually pass into our rooms, interestedly scan any "official communications" that have accumulated overnight, then, with a start, we remember that we have told our ricksha men to "Dung-e-dung" (wait a minute) and that they are patiently and accurately doing a living taximeter act outside. Hastily we call our boy (or school janitor) to pay them "Iga dix." Our janitor speaks very little English. He was a coolie in France during the war and speaks much better French than we do. He prefers our French to our Chinese, however, so we use both languages impartially, mixing them up in a horrible patois of French and Chinese. The above "Iga" ("one" in Chinese) and "dix" ("ten" in French) is a good example, being our means of getting over to him the fact that we wish him to pay our ricksha ten coppers each.

As he gradually learns more English, I can foresee that we shall have a still more interesting mixture of the three languages.

Amahs Visit While Children Study

The opening exercises of school—the flag salute, the repetition of the Lord's Prayer and the talk on current events being over, the amah problem begins. As the amahs have been instructed to wait for the small children they gather together, fifteen or twenty of them, and have a pleasant social hour until the kindergarten classes are dismissed. Their laughter and talking wax so loud and enthusiastic at times that we have to discontinue our teaching and go out and quiet them.

They all love to smoke and the air often becomes so blue from the smoke floating into our schoolroom that another of their innocent pleasures has to be stopped.

Each amah shows a family pride in the child she brings to school, and often during the circle games I look up and see several amahs' faces beaming fondly upon their small charges through the glass top of the door.

The school keeps an amah to assist the children in removing and putting on their coats, and to serve and prepare the kindergarten lunch. Since my kindergarten is large and I have no other teacher I use the amah freely as an assistant.

The Chinese are very skillful with their hands. The amah assists me in preparing the handwork for the children better than many trained assistants. My school amah is having quite an artistic training and is always critically appreciative of the results of any art lesson she has helped me to prepare.

Our janitor also receives a training along lines unfamiliar to most janitors. For instance, he pins all of the handwork on the walls for us, as it is considered beneath the dignity of a foreigner to stand on a chair and do manual labor of that sort. He keeps the blackboards spotless and even our desks and books are kept in apple-pie order.

Never having heard of a school janitor before and not understanding the exact nature of his duties, Boa Jung, is, I fear, sometimes imposed upon by us, as anything we wish to have done we tell him is the "pidgin" of the school janitor and he does it willingly. Occasionally my kindergarten children do not make enough paper chains to reach across our unusually large room, so I ask Boa Jung to prepare enough to make the chain stretch from corner to corner, and I do get a twinge of conscience when I see this big man painstakingly pasting small strips of colored paper together under the impression that he is being a proper janitor.

The children also take advantage of Boa Jung, if we do not watch them, and I heard one fifth-grade girl peremptorily say, "Boa Jung, clean my desk!"

This is one thing the school endeavors to overcome—the helpless attitude of the children toward any sort of physical labor. They have the habit of giving orders instead of doing things themselves, and from the kindergarten up through all the grades we try to make the children more self-reliant and less dependent on servants.

Children Show Lack of Independence

The first time that I told one little girl to pick up the scraps of paper she had left after cutting, she said, "But if anyone sees me, he will think that I am a coolie." She felt she would be "losing face" by doing the things a child at home would do without question.

In the kindergarten I was amazed at first to be constantly called "Auntie." It is quite natural for a kindergarten teacher to be called "Mother," as the home gets confused with the school in the mind of a small child, but until I heard the amahs saying to the children: "Say, 'Howde, Auntie,' to the lady," I had not realized that the children are taught to call any strange man or woman "Uncle" or "Auntie."

The constant procession of chit coolies is another feature not found in a school at home. Here chit coolies are much less expensive than telephones, so nearly all communications are made in this manner and we have to sign many chit books during a day—notes explaining absence of pupils, bills, receipts and what not. It is really much more exciting than a telephone message as there

is something fascinating about receiving a letter and signing a chit book, no matter what the letter contains.

Many lessons in the American textbooks that we use make us realize what a different world we are living in. For example, we had a language lesson on the subject, "How to Make Fudge." Most of the children had never been in the kitchen, much less actually cooked anything, so were unable to give first-hand information on this seemingly ordinary subject.

"How I Earned Some Money" was another topic the children knew very little about, as the usual ways suggested are "washing the dishes, helping mother, cleaning the house, mowing the lawn." When the servants do all of the work, the children have few chances to earn an honest dollar.

Can you imagine an American child who had never seen a circus? I was wholly surprised when in answer to my question, "How many of you have ever attended a circus?" the answer was 100 per cent negative.

The holidays that are so dear to our childhood memories, such as Halloween, Valentine's Day and May Day, are unknown quantities to our pupils. We feel that this is a real lack and have celebrated with particular enthusiasm these gala days. But even here we meet with obstacles. We had had the children make some lovely May baskets and had carefully explained the pretty custom of filling them with flowers, hanging them on the door knobs of friends, ringing the bell and then scampering away. We then dwelt at length on the surprise and delight of the parents when they find the lovely gift, but our enthusiasm was damped by one observant child who pointed out that father and mother never opened the door and what was the fun in surprising the boy?

Teaching Geography in China

Geography is a vital and living subject when taught to children who have actually lived in the places that are only pictures and words to most children. One child here rises and describes the rites on a boat when crossing the equator, or the kangaroos in Australia, or Buckingham Palace or his or her former home in Paris. All of the army and navy children can discourse on Guam and Manila. It adds a live interest to any country to hear about it at first hand.

There are of course many other vital differences between a school here an done at home, such as the feeling regarding patriotism and internationalism. A child at home is associated mostly with American children and naturally absorbs American ideals, while the children here play with French, German, British and Italian children, indiscriminately, in the public parks, and they pick up many ideas that would be astounding to people at home. I hear such remarks as these from the small children: "My friend says the American Flag is no use," and, "The Americans don't ever like to fight in the wars." These are of course echoes from the conversation of some adult.

We hope to correct these false ideas and to instill a knowledge of American ideals and love for America, a country many of these children have never seen, without destroying the wonderful international spirit the children unconsciously develop from constant contact with children of other nations.

Width of Body Is Important in Determining Right Weight

The width of the body is more important in determining what a boy or girl should weigh than the length, according to Dr. Raymond Franzen, research director of the American Child Health Association's School Health Study.

The height-weight tables have been a valuable aid to health workers in the past and from the experience gained in their use and from new data it will be possible to construct new tables shortly that will be still better and more accurate.

Dr. Franzen's findings are based on measurements of 8,000 children of the fifth and sixth grades, from schools of seventy cities scattered over the country. Points as far removed as New Orleans, Spokane, St. Paul and Providence have all contributed to the figures which serve as the beginning of the new tables. Schools in these cities were studied by physicians and educators of the American Child Health Association in the effort to find out how to make health programs more effective in the lives of school children.

The calculations in this study have been carried down to such a fine point that the relative importance of each body dimension in determining weight has been computed. For instance, among 11 year old boys, the width of hips is 30 per cent of the total influence determining weight. The depth of chest exercises 25 per cent influence, breadth of chest, 20 per cent, height, 20 per cent and width of shoulders, 5 per cent. The proportions for girls are somewhat different, the chest dimensions being of still greater importance and height less.

One interesting fact reported was that a child could be heavy without being fat and that a child could be fat without being heavy.

The NATION'S SCHOOLS

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Editorials

Changing Opinions of Educational Theory and Practice

PRIOR to 1890 or thereabouts, writers and speakers on educational subjects were accustomed to enliven and strengthen their views and recommendations by quoting eminent authorities. Their speeches and writings were full of phrases such as, "in the words of Plato," "as Locke says," or "according to Froebel." In the same way, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, Herbart, Herbert Spencer and other old world educational classicists were constantly cited in confirmation of views on any educational topic.

A few American authorities were occasionally cited. These included such men as Horace Mann of Massachusetts, Page of Albany, E. White of Cleveland, Maxwell of Brooklyn, Lane of Chicago, Hughes of Toronto and, more than any other, Francis W. Parker of the Cook County Normal School. These eminent men were considered to have extraordinary insight into the complexities of human nature and effective ways and means of molding the young according to desirable patterns.

Following 1890, American authorities began to play the principal rôle in the citations in the educational press and on the educational platform. William T. Harris, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, and later commissioner of education, was for decades on the tongue and on the pen of every American educationist who aspired to be a guide to his fellows through the spoken or the written word. Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard, was quoted right and left. Soon G. Stanley Hall of Clark University came into the limelight and it was seldom that a speaker or a writer did not use the phrase, "as President G. Stanley Hall says." In due course the McMurry brothers, Frank and Charles, loomed large in all educational discussion. About two decades ago John Dewey emerged from the crowd, and from that time down almost to the present he has been quoted by educational people. More recently, the name of Kilpatrick has been used to place a secure prop under educational doctrines.

It was generally held that what these men believed must be sound because they, more than others, were able to interpret accurately the phenomena they observed and could be depended upon to draw therefrom sound conclusions that

their followers could rely upon and put into practice. These leaders, with the exception of President G. Stanley Hall, reasoned about education rather than investigated human nature or educational processes. They were, and many of them still are, seers in the educational field rather than collectors and elaborators of statistical data concerning education.

At the present moment, educational writers and speakers are using a different phrase from that used formerly in citing authoritative data in the educational field. They now say, "it has been shown by," and complete the phrase with such names as William C. Bagley, Edward L. Thorndike, Charles H. Judd, Lewis M. Terman, Ernest Horn, F. G. Bonser, George D. Strayer, S. A. Courtis, B. B. Buckingham, V. A. C. Henmon, W. S. Monroe, W. W. Charters or Fred C. Ayer. Certain of these names, Bagley, Thorndike, Strayer, Terman and Judd, have been on the tongues and pens of writers for a number of years, and their vogue has been constantly increasing. Professor Bagley and Professor Judd came into the educational field as experimental psychologists and they have dealt with educational questions as experimenters rather than as reasoners or seers. Professor Thorndike has stood out prominently as the sponsor of the experimental attitude toward educational questions, which confines interpretations, conclusions and recommendations to the data in hand pertaining to any problem under consideration.

A host of workers, following the lead of men like Thorndike and Bagley, have come to the front in every section of the country and this is the group that is now regarded as foremost among educators and that is cited in the pronouncements of educational writers and speakers. It is not the opinions of these men that are quoted, but the conclusions they have derived from their investigations. What any man thinks about the curriculum or methods of teaching or the nature of childhood and youth is not regarded highly unless he has taken pains to obtain a sufficient amount of data devoid of prejudice, preconception and bias to warrant generalizations and recommendations.

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Have You Ever Hunted for a Job?

AT THIS time thousands of young men and women are casting about for positions. Taken as a whole, they are eager, earnest and also adventurous. There is the typical novice who is seeking a place to teach. She will graduate from a university in June and she must find a position. For twenty-one years she has been dependent upon her family for maintenance and now she is determined that henceforth she will pull her own oar.

But where is there an opening for her? This is the question that she is asking her friends. She has already made a number of applications but she has received no response from any of them. She is willing to go any place in the world if she can find a job that will pay enough so that she can keep body and soul together. The uncertainty of the future is casting some gloom over the last weeks of her university course which ought to be the most romantic and delightful period of her whole career.

Why will school officials receive and file an application and give a candidate no intimation concerning his chances? It must be that such officers never started out in life themselves. They could never have made application for a place and waited weeks for a response that never came. Anyone who had in his youth hunted for a job himself would not be indifferent to the appeals of one who is trying to get started in life. He would say something to the applicant that would either be encouraging or would at least not keep him in an expectant attitude for weeks only to disappoint him in the end.

No Attention Paid to Applications

There are those who will disclaim responsibility for giving any attention to the applications of novices. They will say that so many applications are received that they cannot give any heed to them. Unfortunately, some agencies follow the plan of advising a multitude of candidates to make application for a single position, thinking that one of them may get it. Would it not be well for a superintendent to advise such agencies that if that practice is continued he will never select any candidates they recommend? But even if fifty times as many candidates make applications for positions as can be appointed, there is nevertheless a moral obligation for school officers to advise candidates that there is no opening for them, or to encourage them if there is a possibility that they may be chosen for a position. All that any school officer needs to do is to recall his own experience when he started out in life as a teacher. He will be sympathetic toward candidates who are now facing the world and he will do what he reasonably can do to save these novices from disappointment or defeat.

Here is a further fact that should be taken into account in dealing with novices. Most of them are ready and willing to go any place, among total strangers if necessary, and a long distance from home and friends. These young people

starting out are with rare exceptions courageous, optimistic and self-reliant. These qualities are desirable in one who essays to teach the young idea how to shoot. They ought to be conserved so far as possible and not blighted by neglect, disappointment and defeat. When a young man or woman is willing to go hundreds or thousands of miles away from home and friends to teach school, an appreciative and helpful attitude should be manifested by those who determine the peace of mind and the destiny of applicants.

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Conceptions of Education—Oriental and Occidental

PEOPLES of the Western world differ fundamentally from most of the peoples of the Eastern world in what might be called intellectual objectivity.

Oriental peoples, speaking generally, cultivate an introverted or, as they say, a spiritual attitude toward life. In their philosophy they maintain that the highest ends of existence are achieved by the development of the spirit without reference to the material universe. They speak of this attitude as meditation. They do not aim to make their reflections harmonize with the objective world of realities. They are not interested largely in discovering how the universe is constructed, how it operates and how human life is affected by it. They hope to attain independence of and superiority to the material universe by spiritual development. They think that by living a subjective life they can rise above disease, poverty, uncleanliness, fear, superstition and mortality.

We of the Western world have little interest or confidence in old world meditation in the hope of attaining either material well-being or spiritual excellence. We believe that we can attain the fullest and most satisfactory objectives of life through harmonious adjustment to our physical, social, intellectual and esthetic environments.

Our philosophy proceeds from the view that man is conditioned by all the forces that play upon him and that his chief effort should be to understand these forces, to adapt himself to them and to utilize them in order to augment the experiences that give pleasure and diminish those that cause pain. We maintain that everything in the human mechanism, physical and mental, has been worked out with a view to perfecting an adjustment to environing objects and conditions. We have but slight faith in the conception that man can attain the highest ends of life by introversion or meditation, in which he ignores or defies the conditioning world and attempts to think himself into a state of happiness.

Our educational theory and practice have been shaped by our fundamental belief in adjustment as the essential requisite for well-being—physical, social, esthetic, intellectual, spiritual. Our education is becoming increasingly influenced by the view that a human being is happiest when he most fully understands the world in which he lives and when he is most skillful in adapting himself to it and in utilizing the forces of nature to promote his well-being. We aim to teach our children from the very beginning to make their thinking accord with objective fact and principle, whereas Oriental children are encouraged to meditate, with but slight regard to the realities of the universe, including the physical laws that affect human welfare. Our children are encouraged to be extroverted instead of introverted in their mental processes and in this respect their training is essentially different from that of Oriental children, with the exception of the Japanese and possibly some of the Chinese children.

Two Types of Minds Conflict

Anyone who sees the two types of minds in operation cannot fail to note a fundamental conflict between Occidental and Oriental modes of solving problems. There are Orientals who from the beginning to the end of a university course are unable to understand or are hostile to the Occidental method of thinking, and the Occidentals in turn are out of sympathy with their mystical introverted methods of dealing with matters affecting education, the training of the young, institutional development or anything else. The Orientals constantly charge us with being materialists. They say, "You have no spiritual insight, no interest in anything but material achievement. You are seeking for physical betterment all the time and all the time you are losing your spiritual inheritance. Instead of seeking to improve the spirit you are trying to find out how you can get more things with which to enjoy yourselves."

An Occidental cannot resist the conviction that an Oriental is a verbalist, a sentimentalist, constructing fantastic views of life and human destiny the while he is in danger of being annihilated by plagues, decimated by starvation or defeated in his aspirations by caste distinctions. The Occidentals and the Orientals in university classes never attack any serious problem in the same way or reach the same conclusion concerning it. The Occidentals insist upon trying to find out the objective laws operating in the case under consideration; the Orientals attempt to solve the prob-

lem by meditative and spiritual activity. The Oriental retires while the Occidental seeks to discover.

Now comes Prof. Irving Babbitt to condemn the Occidental idea of education and to commend the Oriental. In an article in the *Forum* he says that former President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard has been chiefly responsible for inaugurating the regimen of Occidentalism in education. Some readers of The NATION'S SCHOOLS may remember when Charles W. Eliot began to promulgate views that have been or are now being generally accepted by American educators and widely applied in the schools. Eliot was a naturalist who believed that mankind would be helped most if men could find out nature's secrets so that they could adapt themselves to the social and physical world and could make nature serve them according to their needs. He maintained that people are happiest when striving to attain the objectives in which they are interested, and that pupils in the schools should pursue subjects that hold meaning and value for them. He maintained further that people differ in the degree in which they possess various abilities and that account should be taken of this in their school training.

These fundamental ideas are playing a large rôle in American education to-day in contrast to Oriental education, although at this moment Japan is going farther than we are in Occidentalizing its schools, and China is awaking to the fact that nations that are adopting Occidental philosophy and that have incorporated Occidental ideas in their educational systems are pushing rapidly ahead of those peoples that still have faith in and are governed by Oriental philosophy. Every progressive nation in Europe is rapidly abandoning Orientalism in education and is applying the fundamental conceptions of Occidentalism with great enthusiasm and amazing vigor.

Imbued With Old World Ideas

It is a significant fact that some of the most acidulated and persistent critics of modern American education are professors of foreign languages and literatures, as Professor Babbitt is. Seemingly they have become imbued with old world ideas and ideals and have become hostile toward what they see going on about them in the new world, although this is certainly not true of the majority of the teachers of foreign languages in our country. The enemies of what Irving Babbitt calls Americanism are principally, though not wholly persons who are immersed in old world conceptions of life and education and of the medieval old world at that. Of course, there are unlettered and uninformed persons who by original nature incline more to Oriental than to Occidental modes of thinking and methods of dealing with problems of life.

We have our introverted, subjective, meditational individuals who, without much grasp of the matter, praise with loud acclaim the educational views of men like Irving Babbitt. They would like to have us return to an educational régime in which all children would be put through the same verbal program with a view to securing mental discipline and culture. They deplore the fact that so-called cultural values are being cast out of American schools and colleges. How large a following Professor Babbitt has no one can tell. But there are enough such persons to spread some alarm among parents in certain sections of the country who were themselves trained according to Oriental philosophy and who have not kept in touch with the scientific developments that have been responsible for the reconstruction of our educational programs, courses of study, methods of instruction and modes of organizing and managing schools.

Why is it that all the opponents and denouncers of American life and education insist upon living in America and teaching in American educational institutions? When they visit peoples who live in accordance with Oriental conceptions of life and education, why do they hurry back home to suffer under American institutions and to lambast American educational philosophy and practice?

N·S

Keeping Fit in Mind and Body

SOME of us do not seem to appreciate that cleanliness of mind is as necessary for the maintenance of good health as is physical cleanliness. What does it mean to have a clean mind? It means that one's habitual thoughts and feelings are such that they can be revealed to one's acquaintances. It means that one thinks and feels in accordance with the requirements for the welfare of the people among whom he lives, as well as for his own health and vigor.

When our minds were developed it was intended that we should use them to promote the welfare of our fellows as well as to improve our own life. We cannot live unto ourselves alone. Each of us is a member of a social body. We could not exist if we were cut off from our fellows. They help us to live and we in turn should contribute to their well being.

Each person is an integral part of the group in which he lives, in almost as complete a sense as the arm or the eye or the heart is an integral part of the body. If the arm does not work in harmony with the other organs, the whole body

will suffer injury. In the same way, if any person does not think and feel in harmony with the welfare of the group of which he is a part, then not only that person but the whole group will be injured.

Injuries to Others Act as Boomerangs

Our minds and our bodies have been constructed so that if we act contrary to the welfare of our fellows, if we think and feel so as to injure them, we will ourselves suffer injury. Anyone can test this law if he will observe the people whom he knows well. Those who are continually thinking ill of their neighbors and friends and who frequently quarrel with them are not strong, hearty, vigorous people. They cannot resist disease as successfully as those who think well of their friends and neighbors, and who live in harmony with them. A large part of the aches and ills that afflict people are due to the fact that they do not live in peace and contentment with those around them.

Why should this be true? Because when one thinks ill of those around him, when he is constantly planning how he can take advantage of them, when he is envious and jealous, he cannot be frank and free in his actions. He cannot be cheerful and friendly, so he always suffers from tension and this works through the nervous system to disturb the delicate bodily mechanisms. Anyone can observe for himself that when he is feeling angry at persons, or when he is jealous or is planning some harm, he does not breathe freely and deeply. He does not readily digest and assimilate his food. The organs that destroy poisons do not perform their duties as effectively as when he is feeling happy to be with people, and when he is planning to have a good time with them and to cooperate with them in work or in play.

Banish Hateful Thoughts

So the first necessity in preserving a clean mind is to keep it free from hateful, envious and jealous thoughts. Some persons think there can be no harm in thinking hateful and jealous thoughts if they are not actually expressed. It is, however, probably more harmful to good health merely to think hateful and jealous and envious thoughts than it would be actually to express them, because it is easier to get rid of thoughts and feelings by expressing them than by keeping them wholly within one's self. It was intended when our minds and bodies were fashioned that our thoughts and feelings should work out into appropriate action, and when we suppress them they usually cause harm. Of course, we can and we do express our joyous and worthy thoughts and feelings, and this is one reason why they are refreshing, exhilarating, strengthening and helpful to us.

One can prevent himself from thinking evil thoughts and feeling hateful and jealous toward the people about him. When hateful thoughts and feelings try to gain entrance to one's mind, he can banish them by calling up thoughts of good will toward people and by not permitting his evil thoughts and feelings to gain headway. He can leave the persons who awaken such thoughts and feelings and go to those toward whom he can assume the opposite attitude; or better still, he can compel himself to assume friendly relations toward those who tend to arouse unfriendly feelings. Most of one's unkindly thoughts and feelings are due to the fact that he does not understand those with whom he works or plays. He misinterprets what they do, thinking that they are against him, when they really are not, and he would find this out if he could be friendly toward them.

Make Sure of True Feeling

One can observe in his own case how frequently he has thought ill of somebody but when he really knew him better he found him to be frank and honest and fair. It works out that way as a rule. Of course, there are some persons who are selfish and mean; but when there is such a person in a group, it is better for one to tell him frankly how he feels toward him or to keep away from him altogether. One can injure a person as much by making him feel angry, jealous and malicious as in any other way. We ought not to let any one injure us in this manner not only for our own good but for that of the other person as well.

Then one may have an unclean mind which will be a menace to good health if he habitually entertains desires that he cannot reveal to the people around him. Whatever one has to conceal habitually from one's fellows will do him harm. If one finds that he is beginning to think about things and to wish for them, things that he cannot let others know about because they would disapprove, criticise and condemn, then he must build up barriers against such thoughts and feelings. If he entertains them they may grow upon him until in the end he will be their victim. He cannot be frank and free and hearty with people because he is aware that there is something within him that he must not let them find out and that he cannot discuss.

Any thought or feeling that is harmful to the welfare of the people among whom we live, and thus injurious to our own minds or bodies, is unclean and should be banished.

Index Numbers for School Supply Prices

Since seasonal demand is likely to force prices up, it is wise to buy school supplies well in advance during the summer months

By HAROLD F. CLARK, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and JOHN GUY FOWLKES, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin

THE index of school supply prices as usual changed slightly during the past month. The price of paper as a whole has held up well. Production has been much larger than usual, but the surplus is being absorbed readily. Basic prices are firm and there are not likely to be price increases. The prices charged by houses selling school supplies may rise due to the seasonal demand.

During the summer months, even though the index of school supply prices shows no substantial rise, it is advisable to buy supplies well in advance. Better service is given, and in addition the school supply houses may tend to raise prices or to reduce discounts as the period of maximum seasonal demand approaches, despite the fact that there may have been no increase in the cost of the materials to them. In fact, in some instances prices of supplies will actually rise, due to seasonal demand, when the general movement of the prices of the basic materials from which the supplies are made is downward. Our index of school supply prices is much more valuable as an indication of the general trend of prices than it is to show the effect of seasonal buying of school supplies. Each buying agent should adjust his buying program in the light of his own experience.

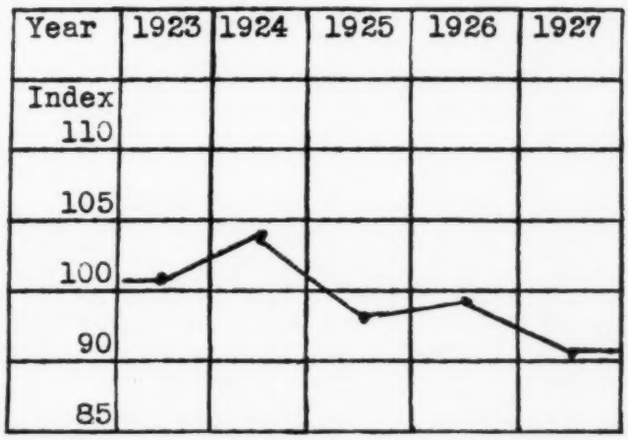


Chart 2. Annual index of the prices of instructional supplies.

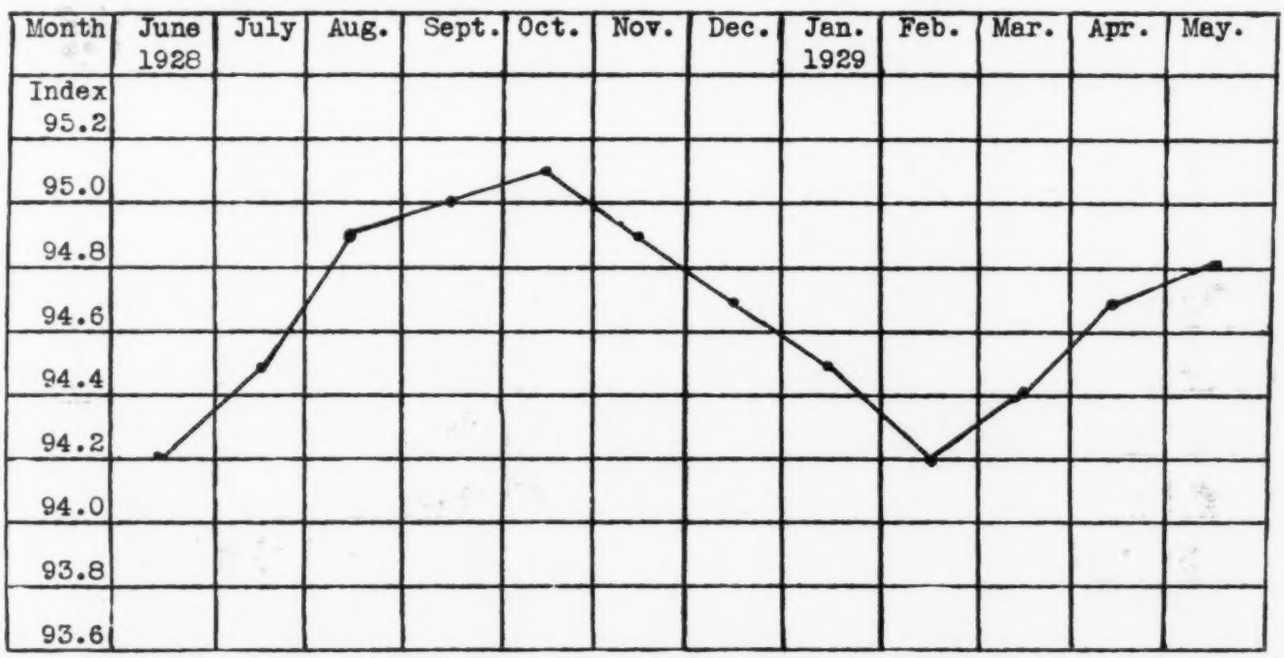


Chart 1. Monthly index of prices of instructional school supplies.

179 Business Officials Discuss School Economies at Columbus

WITH a registration of 179 delegates, the eighteenth annual meeting of the National Association of Public-School Business Officials proved to be one of the most successful meetings that has yet been held. From May 21 to 24 the Hotel Deshler Wallick, Columbus, Ohio, was the scene of great activity with meetings held in the morning, afternoon and evening, with visits to exhibits that numbered thirty-six, and with preparations for side trips that were made to various schools and to picnic grounds. The local entertainment committee was most efficient in seeing that there was not a dull moment for those attending the convention.

A contest developed for the office of first vice-president. In this association the first vice-president succeeds to the presidency and this year two candidates, C. L. Barr, assistant supply commissioner, St. Louis, and C. M. McKee, superintendent of supplies, Pittsburgh, entered the field. Mr. Barr received ninety-one votes and Mr. McKee, fifty-four. C. E. C. Dyson, architect, board of education, Toronto, Canada, was elected president and the retiring president, George King, clerk, board of education, Salt Lake City, Utah, was elected executive committeeman succeeding H. L. Mills, business manager, board of education, Houston, Texas. John S. Mount, inspector of accounts, State Department of Education, Trenton, N. J., was reelected secretary and Henry W. Huston, auditor of accounts, Trenton, N. J., was elected treasurer. New Orleans was chosen as the next meeting place.

Features of the entertainment were a picnic

Delegates from all parts of the country, shown in the photograph above, assembled at the Hotel Deshler Wallick, Columbus,

held on Wednesday afternoon, a tour of the Columbus schools and a banquet held Thursday evening, over which Stewart A. Hoover, president, Columbus Board of Education, presided and at which Thurman Miller, editor, *Wilmington News-Journal*, Wilmington, Ohio, was the chief speaker.

The first paper of the meeting was given by E. T. Stretcher, clerk, board of education, Portland, Ore., and was entitled "The Development and Use of a Detailed Budget." It appears elsewhere in this issue. The second paper, given by Russell E. Tilt, financial secretary, Western Reserve Academy, Hudson, Ohio, was a discussion of the contractural method of janitorial service *versus* a regularly employed staff. Mr. Tilt told of his experiences with both methods and stated that the regularly employed staff was preferable both from an economical standpoint and from the standpoint of efficiency. He has been connected with both public and private schools and discussed both types of school in regard to the maintenance cost of buildings.

In the afternoon reports of the various subcommittees of the research committee were heard. George F. Womrath, business superintendent, Minneapolis, Minn., chairman of the research committee, presided. In the evening round tables were held on the reports of the subcommittees. These round tables were presided over by R. R. Richie, business manager, board of education, Atlanta, Ga., R. W. Adkisson, clerk, board of education, Okmulgee, Okla., John W. Lewis, director of business management, Baltimore, and J. S. Mullan, secretary, board of education, Rochester, N. Y. An interesting paper was also given on Tuesday afternoon by Howard Dwight Smith on rehabilitating obsolete school buildings. Mr. Smith is the architect for the board of education, Columbus, and has done interesting work in this respect, particularly with two of the schools of Columbus. He explained in detail the steps that had been taken in the work.

On Wednesday morning "Vocational Education" was discussed by F. B. Edmunds, member of the board of education, Toronto, Canada. Mr. Edmunds stated that out of every hundred boys now in school five will enter the professions, thirty-five will follow ordinary commercial pursuits and sixty

Ohio, recently, for the eighteenth annual meeting of the National Association of Public-School Business Officials.

will go into industry. He therefore urged those present to pay more attention to vocational and industrial training so that this large percentage will not be neglected.

Dr. E. E. Lewis, chairman, department of business administration, Ohio State University, Columbus, talked upon business administration problems in the public-school system, and Howard A. Campion, principal, Frank Wiggins Trade School, Los Angeles, told of the work of the school in the training of janitors. He presented a most interesting manual of jobs showing the detail that is covered in this course in his school.

A. H. Bell, auditor, board of education, Gary, Ind., gave an excellent talk from charts on the manner in which the work-study-play program of Gary is working out. He presented many convincing graphs and tables.

An excellent paper was also presented at the afternoon session by G. E. Roudebush, assistant superintendent of schools, Columbus, entitled, "Some Practical Economics in Public-School Administration." Mr. Roudebush said in part:

"Most of us, I presume, think of economy in terms of the purchase and distribution of equipment and supplies. Important as these items are it occurs to me that even if we could reduce the expenditures for them by 25 per cent we have not tapped the real sources of economy.

"If we are to adopt policies that produce economies of real significance we must study the large items of the appropriation measure. The purchase of a desk at $6.50 instead of $7 saves $500 for 1,000 desks, which last ten years, but the organization of the personnel service in such a manner that an additional employee is not needed saves a salary of $1,500 to $2,000 a year, which mounts to $15,000 to $20,000 in the ten years. Of the 86 per cent previously mentioned for personnel service, most, of course, is expended for instruction. Large returns can be produced here by careful organization of the school units.

Uniform Teaching Load Urged

"In Columbus, an increase of one pupil per teacher throughout the city will reduce instruction costs by $100,000 per year, two pupils $200,000. An approved, uniform teaching load, rigidly adhered to, will materially reduce the number of employees in this department without seriously embarrassing the instruction program. Improvement of learning conditions for pupils will reduce failures, and consequently reduce the cost of reeducation which amounts to about $500,000 annually in Columbus. Elimination of all classes in high schools that have an enrollment of less than fifteen pupils would reduce costs another $60,000. Analysis of costs in other school districts will undoubtedly show proportionate expenditures for these items. While these suggestions strike at the very heart of the purpose of the public schools, policies embodying them to some degree can be adopted which will not only not hamper the program of instruction, but will actually improve it.

"Another large item of the personnel service costs is the salaries of janitors, engineers and other members of the operating department. Here as in other departments economy is not to be found in reducing the salary paid to the individual employee, but rather through better service rendered by such employee. During the last year a uniform method of determining the cost of heating and cleaning has been applied to all the buildings of our city. This has resulted in a decrease of about fifteen employees, and an average increase of $18 per month to the remaining 200 or more employees in this department. Although an additional cost of $38,000 per year was added to this department through the addition of new buildings the net increase over the preceding year will be several thousands of dollars less than this amount. In short the whole program gives a decided advantage to the individual employee, with a net reduction in cost to the board of education.

Adhere to Approved Amounts of Service

"Summarizing, therefore, the problem of economy for this large item of the appropriation measure for any school district, we must look not to the reduction of salaries but to the rigid adherence to approved amounts of service rendered by all employees.

"The item of current expenses that I place second to the personnel service item has to do with supplies, materials and equipment. If the school system is large enough an accurate cost accounting on the per-pupil basis or some other unit basis will aid in reducing costs. However, too elaborate a system of unit cost accounting may have some dangers in that it may carry us to the point of providing equal expenditures for all pupils but not necessarily equal educational opportunity, which is the fundamental principle of the public school.

"Approaching this item from the standpoint of purchasing, economies can be effected by purchasing in quantities large enough to justify competitive bidding and also by taking advantage of all discounts. In Columbus we have been reasonably successful with two items in this group of expenditures. During the last year all coal was purchased on a heat value basis with correction, plus or minus, in price. As a result all coal accepted and paid for has been up to the standard guaranteed by the contractor. In addition, the saving through

price correction was several hundred dollars in excess of the cost of testing the coal. The other item has to do with furniture. During the last two years practically all replacements of school furniture and a considerable amount of furniture for new buildings have been salvaged from usable stock in the storerooms. This equipment is refinished so that it is practically equivalent to new equipment, for a cost ranging from a fourth to a third the cost of new furniture.

Cheap Materials Do Not Promote Economy

"With regard to actual construction, I believe we shall all agree that cheap materials do not promote economy in permanent buildings. Fire resistive materials cost more for initial construction but less maintenance. The future probably will bring a reduction in cost for extensive heating and ventilating systems, fire protection and sanitary facilities. At present, however, these are largely controlled by regulations of the state code.

"Because of the ever increasing variety of offerings in the curricula and because of the continuous community demands, school buildings have become very expensive. However, a few generally accepted principles can be incorporated into most structures that will achieve real economy. When the architect starts with accurate data based on the needs as shown by the curriculum and the enrollment, there will be a minimum of noninstructional space and a minimum of instructional space that are not usable. The building not only must be designed for the purpose to which it is to be put, it must also be equipped for multiple service. Auditoriums and lunch rooms make satisfactory study halls when properly designed and equipped. English can be taught in a science laboratory if proper equipment is installed. Unused space, either instructional or noninstructional, is waste space.

Flexibility of Design Important

"Flexibility and elasticity should be fundamental principles of design. With the ever changing demands on buildings, provisions must be made for rearrangement of rooms or the addition of space at a minimum cost.

"The daily use of the building is a continuous item of cost. Use of buildings by the community has been and should be encouraged by all districts. However, the indiscriminate use by outside organizations at the expense of the board of education means that public funds are being used for purposes for which they were not intended. School funds are levied primarily for the education of the children of the community.

"Further, an important duty for those responsible for school expenditures is to see that each school unit is so organized that a maximum use is made of the building. This is particularly true of high schools. In Columbus more than fifty classrooms have been added to the available space with no additional cost, simply by reducing the length of class periods by five minutes in junior high schools, thereby making it possible to add one period to the school day without lengthening the day, and by requiring teachers to teach five periods with thirty pupils instead of six periods with twenty-five pupils. Specialized classrooms in high schools as a rule will not show much over 50 per cent efficiency when use is figured on a weekly-pupil-period-station basis, and nonspecialized or academic classrooms will not show much over 65 per cent in most schools. Yet well organized schools have shown 80 per cent to 85 per cent. Requiring school programs to come up to some approved standard before requests for additional space are allowed will materially reduce the cost of construction of new units as well as the cost of their maintenance and operation."

Publicity for School Activities

On Friday morning Fred Charles, director, division of publications, Cleveland Board of Education, talked on keeping the public informed of public-school activities. Mr. Charles has for some time been sending stories of Cleveland school activities to magazines and newspapers and contributed to The NATION'S SCHOOLS an article on the Cleveland Schools in the December, 1928, issue.

At the regular meeting of the Rotary Club on Tuesday the speaker for the day was Mr. Edmunds, Toronto, Canada, who spoke on how educated men can use the education they have acquired. Many of the members of the school association and several of the exhibitors attended the luncheon.

A meeting was held by the representatives of Michigan and a decision was reached to form an association of business administrators to meet in Lansing some time in July. L. C. Edmunds, business manager, Royal Oak, Mich., was elected chairman and H. N. Morrill, secretary and business manager, Grand Rapids, was elected secretary.

One of the interesting sidelights of the meeting was the attendance of H. E. Johnson, business manager, West Hartford, Conn., who came to the meeting in his own airplane, covering the distance in ten hours. Mr. Johnson is an enthusiastic flyer and left Columbus on Friday. He hoped to make his first landing at Schenectady, N. Y., and to reach Hartford by noon on Saturday.

Your Every-day Problems

JOHN GUY FOWLKES, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, DIRECTOR

This department will be devoted to an informal discussion of problems arising in the every-day life of principals and superintendents. The following discussions are based on answers to inquiries recently received by the director. Similar inquiries are invited and should be addressed to Dr. John Guy Fowlkes, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

Some Pitfalls in the Administrative Use of Intelligence Tests

Several inquiries have been made as to the existing dangers in using intelligence tests for administrative purposes. The most recent inquiry comes from a superintendent who wishes us to set forth the dangers of intelligence tests. We can do no better than to present the answer to this question made several years ago by M. R. Trabue, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. Professor Trabue's answer is as follows:

It is said to be extremely dangerous in certain parts of the world to walk through the open country at night because of the deserted mine shafts and unprotected pits that await the feet of one who travels without a light. The dangers that beset the path of would-be mental examiners are of much the same nature. There are pitfalls on every hand. Unless one's eyes have been opened to these dangers by thorough training and extensive experience, one should not attempt to give intelligence tests. If the attempt is made, it should be made with extreme caution. It would be much better to wait for expert guidance in this field than to plunge blindly ahead and thereby involve scores of innocent boys and girls in an educational and vocational snare which would affect their lives profoundly and in many cases permanently.

Thorough Understanding of Tests Needed

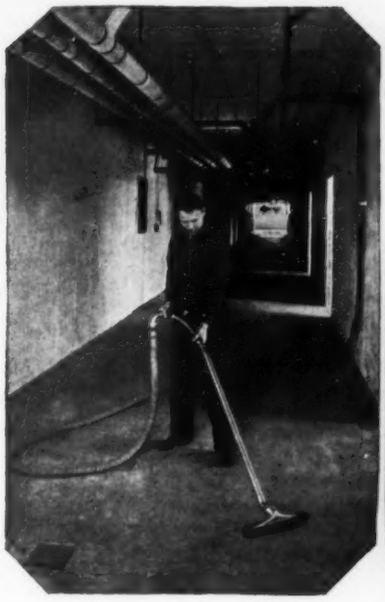
An inadequate understanding of the scope and significance of the tests may lead to serious difficulties. Each of the group intelligence scales at present available involves only a few of these abilities, and no two of these scales measure exactly the same combination of qualities. We know little about the specific traits that should be included in a comprehensive test of general intelligence, and still less about the relative weight that should be attached to the different tests to be included. We are certain that we do not yet have any system of tests in which exactly the proper elements are combined in exactly the proper proportions to make a perfect test of general intelligence.

It is certainly a mistake to claim that the group tests used in our schools are measures of general intelligence. After all, is it general intelligence that we wish to measure? Is it not really more important for our purposes to measure the specific type of intelligence that enables children to succeed in the kind of work offered by the schools, than to measure intelligence in general? When he uses a group intelligence test, the school administrator would do well to acknowledge frankly that he is measuring certain elements of a relatively specific ability to do abstract thinking with words and symbols. Such an acknowledgment would go far toward clarifying the issues raised by the results of tests.

"Inferior" and "Superior" Children

In view of the specific nature of the intelligence tests, it is unfortunate that the custom has grown up of speaking of one child as superior to another, when the only evidence of such superiority is that he has made a larger score on a given test. The evil of this custom is more clearly seen when one child is reported as inferior to another. How do we know that the perfect all-round intelligence test might not weigh social intelligence, mechanical intelligence or some other type of ability, much more heavily than the academic type we now can measure?

Intelligence test scores should never be substituted for common sense and good judgment. The tests should supplement the teacher's judgment but should not take its place. When common sense and reason seem to oppose the evidence of the tests with regard to a pupil, the tests should



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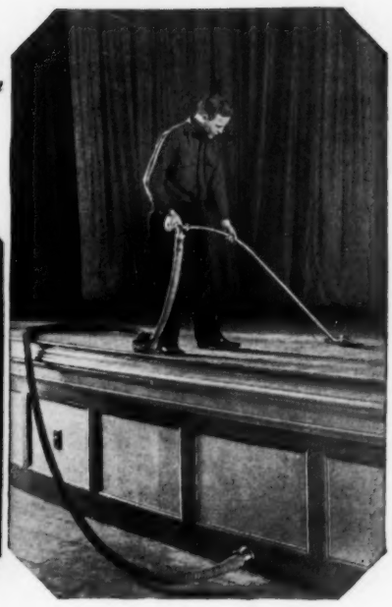

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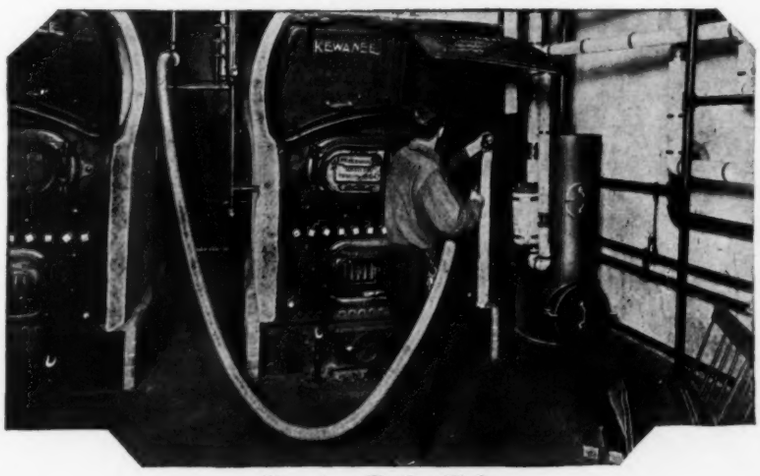

Cleaning Boiler Tubes

not be accepted as conclusive. The time may come when an intelligence test score may be trusted, even though it contradicts the thoughtful judgments of teachers, but that time is not yet.

The very language in which the results of tests are discussed afford numerous pitfalls, since it tends to create an unwarranted confidence in the accuracy of the instruments used. The word "measurements," which has come to be applied to the results of almost any test, suggests a high degree of accuracy which cannot always be justified.

Rely Too Fully Upon "I. Q." Tests

Another source of false confidence has been the adoption by the makers of group tests, of the intelligence quotient technique, devised by Lewis M. Terman, Stanford University, Calif., for the Stanford Binet Examination. The truth of the doctrine of the constancy of the I.Q. has not been sufficiently demonstrated in the case of the Stanford examination itself, but as soon as its truth is asserted in connection with the far less accurate group examinations, a sad state of affairs has been reached in the science of mental measurements. In hundreds of cases, however, pupils have been tested by a group intelligence test, the accuracy of which even the examiner himself would question, after which ratios and quotients have been worked out to the second or third decimal point. All too frequently these derived measures have been discussed and used in administrative reclassifications, as if their accuracy were open to no question or doubt whatever. Unless one is willing to reexamine and to reclassify pupils whenever new and more reliable evidences of ability have been discovered, one might better leave the intelligence tests strictly alone.

A third type of error is due to loose reasoning about the results of tests. False inferences are too often drawn from the scores obtained. It is quite common, for example, to assume that pupils who make low scores in a so-called intelligence test would succeed relatively better along trade lines, in manual arts or in unskilled labor. Perhaps they would, but the low scores in the abstract tests do not prove it. The absence of one type of ability does not ensure the presence of another. Until adequate tests for the purpose have been applied, the presence of a capacity for manual skill or the possession of any other type of ability, can be proved at the present time only by an actual tryout of the pupil in the field concerned.

Another false conclusion, drawn from the results of the so-called intelligence tests, is that pupils who make scores of a certain size will not profit by further training. The tests used are measures of a specific type of ability—the type that enables pupils to succeed at the academic work offered in the usual public school. If the child makes a low score in the tests, it does not follow that it is useless to train him. The child may indeed have reached his maximum level in abstract work with symbols and words, but there remains an endless number of avenues through which he may broaden his experience and enrich his store of knowledge, even at his relatively low level of abstract thought.

At the other extreme there is a pitfall of just as serious nature—the assumption that those who make high scores on the so-called intelligence tests do not need special attention or training, because they will take care of themselves. It is true that pupils with great ability as shown by these tests are usually able to master the ordinary school subjects with little effort and great speed, but unless they are stimulated and directed they do not develop as they should along the lines for which their special abilities fit them. Stenquist has recently found a negative correlation of 0.40 between effort and intelligence, both qualities in several hundred pupils being measured as accurately and objectively as possible.

The pupils with high abstract intelligence test scores learn what is offered for the average pupils and then loaf. Their need is not merely for more work, but also for a different type of training. The average citizen needs to be taught how to verify information supplied by books, magazines, newspapers and research workers, and how to judge and select the ideas by which the democracy he controls is to be guided.

Treatment After Segregation Important

The most serious pitfalls of all are those concerned with the treatment applied to situations revealed by intelligence tests. When pupils have been sorted into homogeneous groups, they have not thereby been improved. Tests of ability along various lines and the grouping together of pupils of like abilities provide a starting point and an opportunity for an educational program that will lead pupils to success and happiness rather than to failure and discouragement; but they do not in themselves provide such a program. All of the intelligence, patience and skill of a competent corps of supervisors will be needed to develop and to carry on such an enterprise. It will not run automatically.

As soon as one begins to make administrative use of the intelligence tests, teachers and supervisors must be trained to make proper adjustments of their instruction to the characters and abilities of their groups. In many cases teachers

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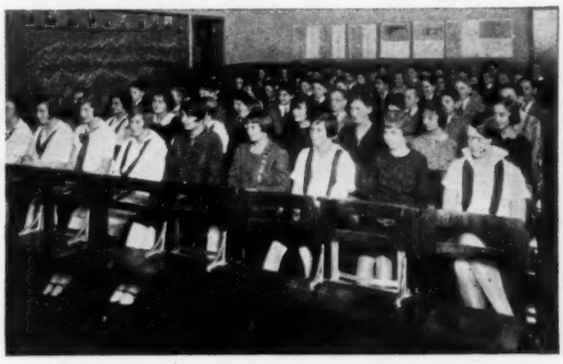

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will have to alter not only their methods but their social attitudes and their conceptions of democracy. Instead of trying to turn the eyes of all their pupils toward academic work or the learned professions as the ultimate goal in life, they must recognize and teach that effective service to the community is the highest ideal. It must be clear to them that it is just as noble and worthy to be an efficient butcher or teamster as it is to be a good teacher, or indeed, that an effective street sweeper may actually be worthy of more public honor and respect than a successful lawyer.

Program Requires Time for Development

Such a program requires time. It also requires an enormous amount of sound common sense, a broad social philosophy, a thorough training in psychology and scientific method and an infinite patience. For the present, and until the science of mental measurements is much older, more highly developed and better understood, the psychologists and the school administrators must cooperate at every step. Each needs the constant assistance of the other, if the pitfalls that sursound the administrative use of intelligence tests are to be avoided. For the sake of the pupils and for the safety of democracy, psychologists and administrators must continue to work hand in hand.

Problems Under Consideration by a High-School Principal and His Staff

An inquiry received from a principal of a junior-senior high school asks for available information regarding the following points, which he and his staff are considering at the present time: (1) length of the school day for high schools in cities from 15,000 to 30,000 population; (2) length and number of class periods in daily programs; (3) method employed in handling extra-curricular activities during the regular school day; (4) methods employed in coping with tardiness; (5) pupil's part in pupil control and government.

References sent to the principal included the following:

Mann, Carleton Hunter, "How Schools Use Their Time." Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. Contribution to Education, No. 333.

Nettels, Charles H., Assistant Director, Department of Psychology and Educational Research, Los Angeles, "A Study of Pupil Load in Junior High Schools, Jan. 1, 1927."

Cushman, C. H., Handbook of the Activity Program of the Oklahoma Junior High School. Division of Research, Oklahoma City, Okla., Nov., 1928.

Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Extra-Curricular Activities, 1926.

Foster, Charles R., "Extra-Curricular Activities in High School." Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Va., 1925.

Jones, H. W., "Student Cooperation in School Government." *School and Society*, Feb. 26, 1921, pp. 251-257.

Kockle, W. C., "Student Self-Government." *Journal of Educational Method*, May, 1926, pp. 204-208.

McKown, Harry C., "Extra-Curricular Activities." Macmillan Company, New York City, 1927.

Parmenter, Ethel M., "Student Government." *School Review*, Feb., 1925, pp. 115-125.

Smith, W. R., "Constructive School Government." The American Book Company, New York City, 1924.

Series of pamphlets published by Self-Government Committee, 2 Wall Street, New York City.

Nudd, Howard, The Bureau of Compulsory Education of the City of Philadelphia. Pub. Ed. Assn., 8 W. 40th Street, New York City.

Englishman Is Impressed by School Library Methods

The deliberate way in which Americans are teaching their young people to read books made a profound impression on E. G. Savage, inspector of the board of education, England, on a recent tour of America.

The Americans support their local libraries and use them well, Mr. Savage said in speaking before the Library Association Conference at Blackpool, a fact no doubt due to the methods practiced by the schools in teaching their pupils how to use books.

Mr. Savage was also impressed by the cooperation that exists in America between the secondary schools and the public libraries, aside from the fact that in many states schools budget themselves a certain amount for each pupil yearly for libraries.

English conditions, especially financial considerations, make it difficult for England to go as far as America has gone, a report in *School and Society* quotes Mr. Savage as saying. Most of the public schools have a collection of books fittingly housed, but the state of affairs in grant-aided secondary schools is much less satisfactory. The next move must be in the direction of training teachers to train children how to use books.

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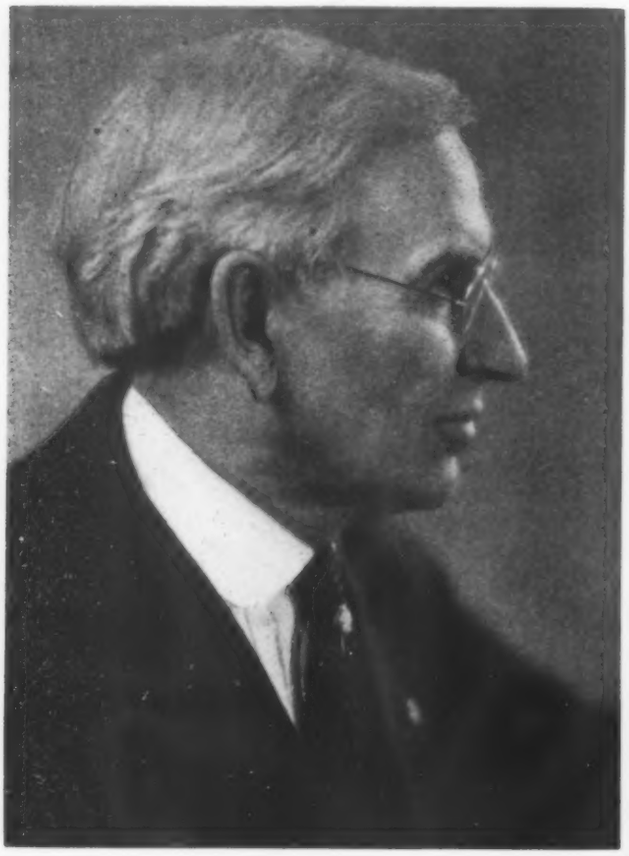
News of the Month

Important Speakers to Address Education Convention

SPEAKERS of national and international importance will participate in the sixty-seventh annual convention of the National Education Association which convenes in Atlanta June 28, to continue through Independence Day.

As arranged by Uel W. Lamkin, president of the association, and his assisting committee, the program includes addresses on many phases of educational work, all bearing, however, on the central theme of the convention, "Education for a New World."



J. W. Crabtree, Washington, D. C., recently reelected secretary of the National Education Association.

Among the outstanding persons on the program, will be Lorado Taft, Chicago sculptor, who will speak on the relation of art to the development of future citizens; William Green, president, American Federation of Labor, who will speak on "Education for the Vocations," and J. C. Wright, director, Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Future possibilities of teacher training in America will be discussed by William F. Russell, dean, Teachers College, Columbia University; Shelton Phelps, dean, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; W. P. Morgan, president, Western Illinois State Teachers College, and president, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

A. O. Thomas, president, World Federation of Education Associations, and Madame Castellani of Italy, will address the convention on "International Aspects of Education."

Other speakers who will have prominent places on the program include Walter Williams, dean of the school of journalism, University of Missouri, and president, Press Conference of the World, whose subject is "As a Reporter Sees the New World"; William J. Bogan, superintendent of schools, Chicago; M. R. Trabue, University of North Carolina; Robert R. Moton, principal, Tuskegee Institute,

H. A. Allan, business manager of the association.

R. H. Hunt Co., Chattanooga, Tenn., were the architects of the East Lake Junior High School, Chattancoga, the class rooms of which were floored with TILE-TEX by Currin-Andrews Co., Distributors, Chattanooga.

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News of the Month

Tuskegee, Ala.; Lucy Gage, assistant professor of elementary education, George Peabody College, and Anna P. MacVay, dean, Wadleigh High School, New York City, who will speak on "Vergil, Prophet of the New World."

The convention will open Friday evening, June 28, with a general educational program. Morning sessions through convention week will be devoted to business and general meetings, while most of the afternoons will be given over to departmental conferences. Among the latter some of the more important will be those on adult education, classroom teachers, lip reading, rural education, social studies, visual instruction and vocational education.

The National Council of Education will hold two sessions, Monday and Tuesday afternoons, with "Synthetic Research" and "State Education Programs in the United States" as the subjects for discussion. Other leagues and councils affiliated with the National Education Association that will hold meetings in connection with the convention include the American Classical League, National Conference on Student Participation in School Government, National Council of Geography Teachers, National Council of Teachers of English, National League of Teachers' Associations, National Vocational Guidance Association and the School Garden Association of America.

New York State Increases Number of School Days

Recent action by the New York State Legislature increases the number of school days in a year from 180 to 190, according to a recent issue of *School and Society*. Compulsory attendance upon part-time instruction by employed minors, fourteen to seventeen years of age, except graduates of four-year high schools, is required in cities having a population of 20,000 or more, and in districts where there are 200 or more such employed minors. Exceptions are made for children mentally or physically defective.

The penalty against parents for permitting their children to violate attendance requirements was increased from $5 or five days' imprisonment to $10 or 10 days' imprisonment for a first offense.

National Survey Shows Extent of Health Examinations

A survey showing the extent of health examination requirements in sixty-five teacher-training institutions throughout the United States recently was completed by the American Association of School Physicians, according to a bulletin issued by the United States Bureau of Education.

Fifty city normal, state normal schools and teachers' colleges were selected at random and represented thirty-three different states. To this number were added schools available to various members of the committee, making possible a study of sixty-five different schools.

Some of the findings of this study were: (1) Seventy-six per cent of these teacher-training institutions require a health examination of students on entrance; only 12 per cent do not require it. Six per cent of them give a partial examination, and with 6 per cent it is optional. (2) The examinations of 62 per cent of the students in these teacher-training institutions were made by the college physician; 12 per cent, by the local physicians; 2 per cent, by family physicians; 4 per cent, by the physical department of the institutions; and 20 per cent did not state who made the examination.

This association advocates very strongly the employment of a school nurse, and the provision of a room designated as a health room, where the nurse reports at an appointed time, and where the children, parents, and teachers come to talk over with her their many problems and difficulties.

Preliminary Work Starts on Catholic Girls' College

Preliminary work on the first unit of a Catholic girls' college at Sioux City, Iowa, has been started with the breaking of ground preparatory to constructing the main building. The initial building will comprise a main hall with accommodations for dormitory, classrooms and administrative offices and will cost approximately $200,000.

The new educational plant, completion of which will cost $1,000,000, will be built on a thirty-acre campus known as Briarcliffe. Funds for construction of the college buildings are to be raised throughout the Sioux City diocese.

Winter Meeting of N. E. A. Scheduled for February

The sixtieth annual convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will be held in Atlantic City, N. J., February 23-27, 1930, according to an announcement made by Frank Cody, superintendent, Detroit public schools, and president, Department of Superintendence.

With the meeting of the Department of Superintendence there will be fourteen other departments and allied groups holding sessions in Atlantic City at the same time. The annual conventions of the Department of Superintendence and its allied groups constitute one of the largest educational gatherings held in the world each year. To the meetings are attracted educational administrators and specialists from all types of institutions from the rural school through the university.

Endowment Will Perpetuate Little Red Schoolhouse

Perpetuation of the one-room red schoolhouse overlooking the Connecticut River where Nathan Hale taught after leaving Yale College is assured by an endowment fund of $400,000 recently created.

The building has been kept as a shrine by the Sons of the American Revolution.

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News of the Month

Commissioner Urges Elimination of One-Teacher Schools

Elimination of the one-teacher schools that still persist in many of the rural communities throughout the country in favor of consolidated schools serving larger districts was urged by William John Cooper, United States commissioner of education, in an address recently given before members of Potomac Grange No. 1 of the Patrons of Husbandry.

Mr. Cooper estimated that there still are 160,000 one-teacher schools in the United States, declaring that Illinois reports about 10,000; Iowa, 9,500; Kansas, Missouri, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin, 6,000 to 8,000 each.

The development of highways in recent years is one of the principal factors facilitating the establishment of consolidated schools, Mr. Cooper stated.

The commissioners explained the findings in a number of surveys of rural-school districts made in various parts of the country during the last decade and from these reports made the following recommendations:

That consolidated schools be established wherever it is possible to bring enough children together to make a graded school; that where population is too scattered or highways still too poor to permit consolidated schools, there be established nine-month schools of twelve to fifteen pupils each, thus placing two or three pupils in each grade and promoting team work; that pupils remote from the one-teacher schools that remain be permitted to pursue their work by correspondence; and finally, that each state make a careful survey to decide which schools should be discontinued and establish a bureau in its department of education to check results of all work in rural schools. Mr. Cooper also suggested that trained supervisors frequently visit all ungraded rural schools remaining, turning in reports to the bureau in the state department of education.

In advising the correspondence courses Mr. Cooper spoke of the instruction by correspondence now being planned by the United States Bureau of Education for children of army and navy officers living in remote posts.

"It is likely that many state departments of education can economically maintain a correspondence division which, supplemented by the radio, can give to children attending small schools a better grade of teaching than they now get," the commissioner said. "They can also reach children in mountain passes now not receiving any educational attention at all."

Michigan Education Association Has New Building

Constructed as headquarters for an organization of more than 30,000 teachers and school executives of Michigan, the new office building of the Michigan Education Association at Lansing is one of the finest structures of its kind in the country, according to the *Pennsylvania School Journal.*

It is a three-story brick and stone structure, costing approximately $75,000, including the site, and embodies the latest type of office building efficiency. The building is finished in a rustic oriental brick, with the interiors in tan and green. The building is heated by an automatic oil burning system, and equipped with an automatic elevator. A dictograph interior telephone system has been installed, and between the offices on the second and third floors are semiremovable partitions.

Warless History—Something New in Education

The action of Dr. Harold Rugg, Teachers College, Columbia University, in revising textbooks in history, geography, civics and like subjects to the extent of omitting all accounts of war, has won the praise of well known educators throughout the country, according to the *Journal of Education.* Doctor Rugg has constructed a new curriculum which he calls, "Social Science," that does away with classes in civics, geography, history and like studies.

Instead of describing in detail the many battles of history as is done in most texts, the new books preach tolerance and understanding. They describe the World War in 1,700 words and the Civil War in 2,000 words, avoiding the mention of battles. There are now 300 school systems using the revised textbooks.

Progress Noted in Educational Facilities for Cripples

Although few states have laws providing special public-school classes for the instruction of crippled children—a measure now believed to be the ultimate solution for the problem—great advancement has been made within the last few years in establishing specialized education for children physically handicapped, according to information made public by the United States Bureau of Education.

The bureau has compiled and printed the laws of the various states that provide specialized education for crippled children, laws that indicate a growing conviction that a gradual transition from private to public responsibility for this branch of work is developing.

The report of the bureau points out that the earliest attempts to provide this education for crippled children were prompted by private charity, but that the first public-school classes of this sort in the United States were opened in Chicago in 1899. Similar classes were opened in New York in 1906.

Minnesota was the first state to provide by legislation for public care and treatment of indigent crippled children, and later another law was enacted making provision for their education.

The first legislative action on this matter tended to provide for the establishment of state institutions where crippled children could be sent. The tendency of more recent legislation has been to provide education for such children by means of special public classes in local school districts.

"I have used Acousti-Celotex in twenty-five Kansas City schools with uniformly satisfactory results"

says Charles A. Smith, prominent architect of Kansas City, Missouri

Charles A. Smith
Prominent Architect
of Kansas City, Missouri

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Schools and colleges everywhere are improving acoustics in buildings new or old with this remarkable material. Study halls and libraries are freed from distracting noises . . . given the quiet that aids concentration. In auditoriums, gymnasiums, manual training shops and school corridors, reverberating echoes are blotted out.

Acousti-Celotex comes in several types, including BB with a sound absorbing efficiency of 70%. The single, cane fibre units are easily and economically installed.

Mr. Smith also designed the Memorial Auditorium of William Jewell College in Liberty, Missouri, in which echoes and disturbing noises are subdued with Type C Acousti-Celotex applied to the ceiling.

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News of the Month

National School Orchestra Camp Is Announced

The annual summer session of the National High School Orchestra and Band Camp will be held at Interlochen, Mich., June 23 to August 18, according to announcement in the *Michigan Education Journal.*

Major activities of the camp, which is sponsored and operated by the Music Supervisors National Conference, the National Federation of Music Clubs, the National Bureau for the Advancement of Music and the Carnegie, Juilliard and Presser Foundations, will be an orchestra of 250 players, a band of 100 players and a choir of 100 voices. The faculty for the 1929 season includes forty of the best known musicians and educators in America, including symphony orchestra players, music supervisors and college men.

Membership in the camp is open to high-school musicians who can meet the musical standards set by the camp and who are recommended as to character by the superintendent of schools, high-school principal and music supervisor.

New Dormitories Constructed at University of Virginia

Eight new dormitories, all under one roof and accommodating more than 300 men, will be ready for occupancy with the opening of the the University of Virginia autumn sessions in September. Three-fourths of these rooms will be reserved for first-year students, the remainder going to upper classmen.

Schools for Boys Receive Gifts From John Raskob

Two eastern boys' schools are recipients of gifts aggregating $70,000 from John J. Raskob, chairman of the National Democratic Committee, it was announced recently.

The McDonogh School, Baltimore, received $25,000 for a building to be known as the Bill Raskob Memorial Infirmary, named in honor of Mr. Raskob's son who was killed recently in an automobile accident. The second gift of $45,000 was presented to the gymnasium and scholarship fund of the Hun School, Princeton, N. J.

Art Collection Presented to Pennsylvania Association

As a memorial to his brother, the late Lloyd Mifflin, Dr. Houston Mifflin, Columbia, Pa., has presented a collection of thirty-nine works of art to the Pennsylvania State Education Association. The collection, consisting largely of oil paintings by Lloyd Mifflin and his father, John Houston Mifflin, and including also several valuable paintings collected abroad by the two artists, is now on exhibition at the Cope Galleries, Philadelphia, the *Pennsylvania School Journal* announces.

This is the second gift presented by Doctor Mifflin to the education organization. He has already deeded two estates, "Norwood" and "Cloverton," near Columbia, to the association to be used as a home for retired teachers of the Pennsylvania schools.

First Unit of College for Negro Women Started

The cornerstone of a new building at Virginia Union University, a Negro college at Richmond, Va., was placed at a recent ceremony marking construction work on the first unit of the college for women. The building, when completed, will cost approximately $120,000. It is financed with funds contributed by Negroes, said to be the largest amount ever raised by the race themselves for their own educational work.

The college, which numbers many well known Negroes among its graduates, was offered a large conditional gift by the General Education Board. After some effort the Negroes raised $50,000 of the $100,000 they were to obtain themselves. Julius Rosenwald then offered to contribute the last $10,000 when the Negroes had raised the needed $40,000. President W. H. Clark has announced that the $20,000 still needed for the building is now being raised by subscriptions from Negroes.

Mystery Gift Ensures Construction of Student Building

Donation of $500,000 from a person who wishes his identity kept secret has ensured construction of a student union building on the new Westwood campus of the University of California, Los Angeles, according to an announcement by Dr. Ernest C. Moore, director.

Work on the plans for the new building, which is to serve as a general social and business center, is to start immediately.

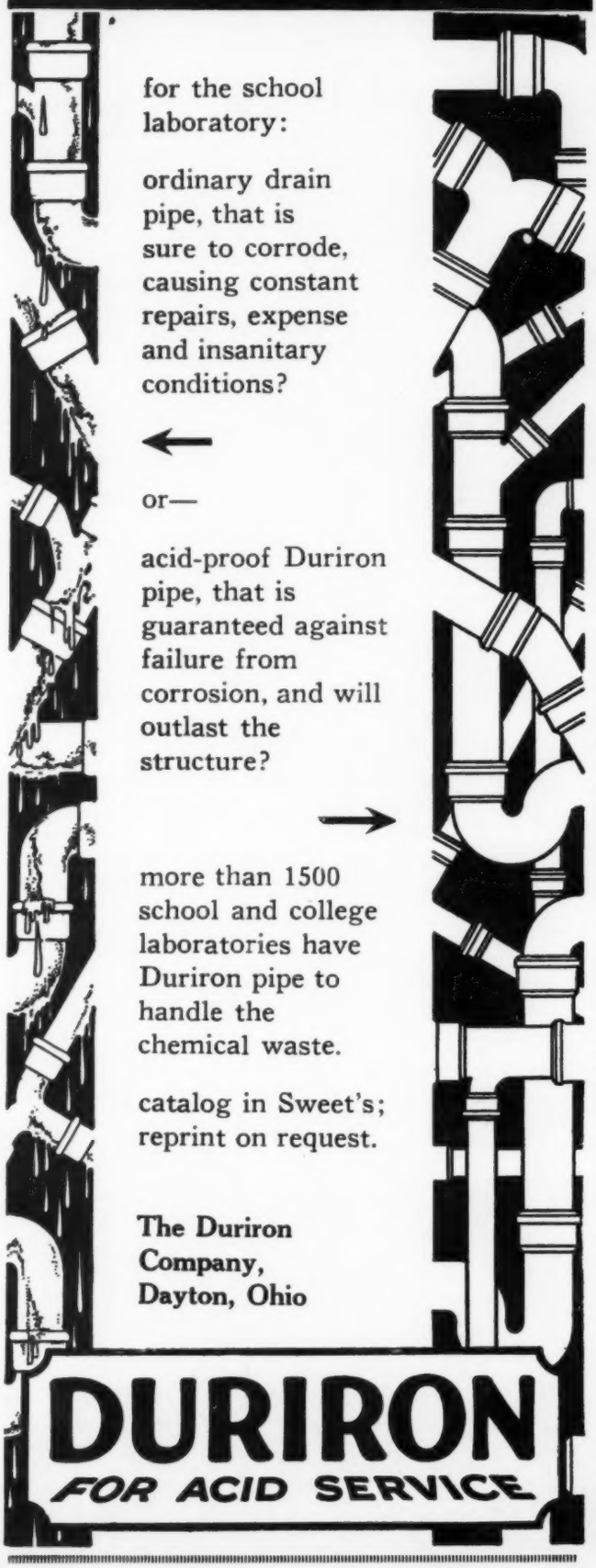
Name of Ohio Teachers School Is Changed

The name of the Grace A. Greene Normal School, Dayton, Ohio, has been changed to the Dayton Junior Teachers College, it is announced. The change was made in order to conform to the style of names used by junior colleges that are members of the American Association of Colleges and Universities and that are known by the name of the city in which they are located.

That the name of Grace Greene may be perpetuated, the normal training school will be known as the Grace A. Greene School.

Maude G. Slaght is principal of the Dayton Junior Teachers College, where a new building costing $235,000 is now being planned.

Which?



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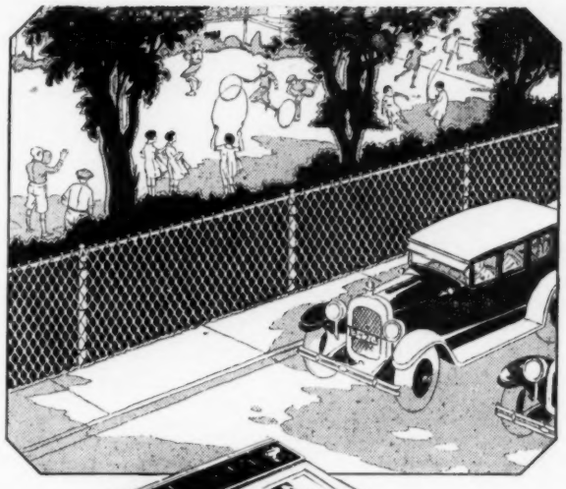

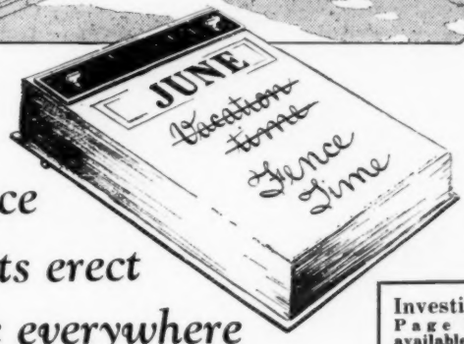

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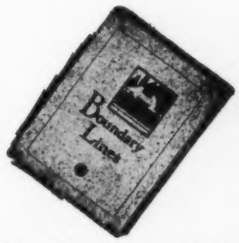

"Boundary Lines" will help you beautify and protect your school grounds this vacation. It shows how to provide added safety for children, gardens and prop-

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PAGE FENCE

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News of the Month

Survey Shows Extent of Athletic Coaching in Schools

Provision is made for the coaching of athletics in the school systems of 80 per cent of the cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population; 93 per cent in cities of 30,000 to 100,000 and 90 per cent in cities of 100,000 or more, according to statistics made public recently by the United States Bureau of Education.

In general, the work of coaching athletics is carried on by regular physical education teachers who are required to devote, on an average, ten hours each week to this in addition to their regular teaching; by academic teachers who voluntarily, with or without pay, assist in these activities; and by special athletic coaches whose only duties with the schools are coaching and directing athletic teams, the bureau report states.

In the high schools few of the special coaches do all of the coaching. These coaches generally cooperate with or are assisted by the physical directors or academic teachers.

While no set custom has been established, conditions indicate that the belief is widespread that all coaching of athletics should be directly under the control of the physical director and should be done after school hours.

Athletic contests are seldom carried on between elementary schools, but in some parts of the country annual play days are held in which all children in the entire school system are urged to participate.

Group Studies Possibilities of Education by Radio

Methods to be employed in case the federal government participates in the use of the radio for national educational purposes will be determined by a fact finding commission probably to be appointed by President Hoover, according to a motion unanimously adopted at a meeting of broadcasters and educators held May 24 under the auspices of the United States Department of the Interior.

The instruction by radio, whatever its form, should be under direct governmental supervision to rid the program of commercialism, was the consensus of the meeting.

The progress of radio within the short time it has become part of every-day life was outlined by a number of radio officials and educators. Representatives of several of the national broadcasting companies described the educational programs now being presented, which include instruction in music, story-telling, history, geography, dramatization and spelling.

Government Plans Correspondence-School Courses

Special correspondence-school courses for children of army and navy officers, lighthouse keepers and other government employees located at isolated posts are being arranged by the Department of the Interior, according to recent announcement.

The courses, which will be available next Fall, will be so planned as to provide training in all the primary and secondary-school grades. They are now in the course of preparation. The correspondence-school service that goes with them will be handled by the Bureau of Education and will be free of charge.

"By extending the service, the government will make an attempt to overcome some of the disadvantages that must be met by those of its employees who are sent to isolated posts," the announcement states.

Log Schoolhouse to Be Replaced by Modern Structure

Modern rooms and furnishings soon will take the place of an old log schoolhouse near Fargo, N. D., said to be the first rural school in Clay County. Plans for construction of the new building have been completed and work will start shortly after the school closes for the season. The structure will contain thirty rooms.

Enlargement of Harley School to Start Soon

Extensive plans for the expansion and improvement of Harley School, Rochester, N. Y., have been approved by the directors and work will start within a short time, it is announced.

Four new buildings are to be constructed around a quadrangle with a gymnasium as the first of the unit. The second unit will be a lower school building to house the first six grades. The studio building will be the third unit and the last structure will be a preschool building housing a nursery school and kindergarten groups.

Increased utilization of sixty-one acres now owned and occupied by the school is included in the plan for expansion. Completely equipped playing fields will be developed and concrete tennis courts which may be flooded and used for ice skating in the winter months are to be constructed.

Cornerstone for Coney Island High School Placed

The cornerstone for the new $4,000,000 Abraham Lincoln High School, Coney Island, New York, was set in place May 7 by Mayor James J. Walker, who gave the principal address at the program following the ceremony. The school will be completed by the Fall of 1930, it is expected.

In placing the cornerstone Mayor Walker declared that New York City has challenged the world in the number of schools in its building program, pointing out that there were forty new schools in Brooklyn alone, all constructed since January 1, 1926, and 160 in Greater New York, providing a total seating capacity of 208,000 children.

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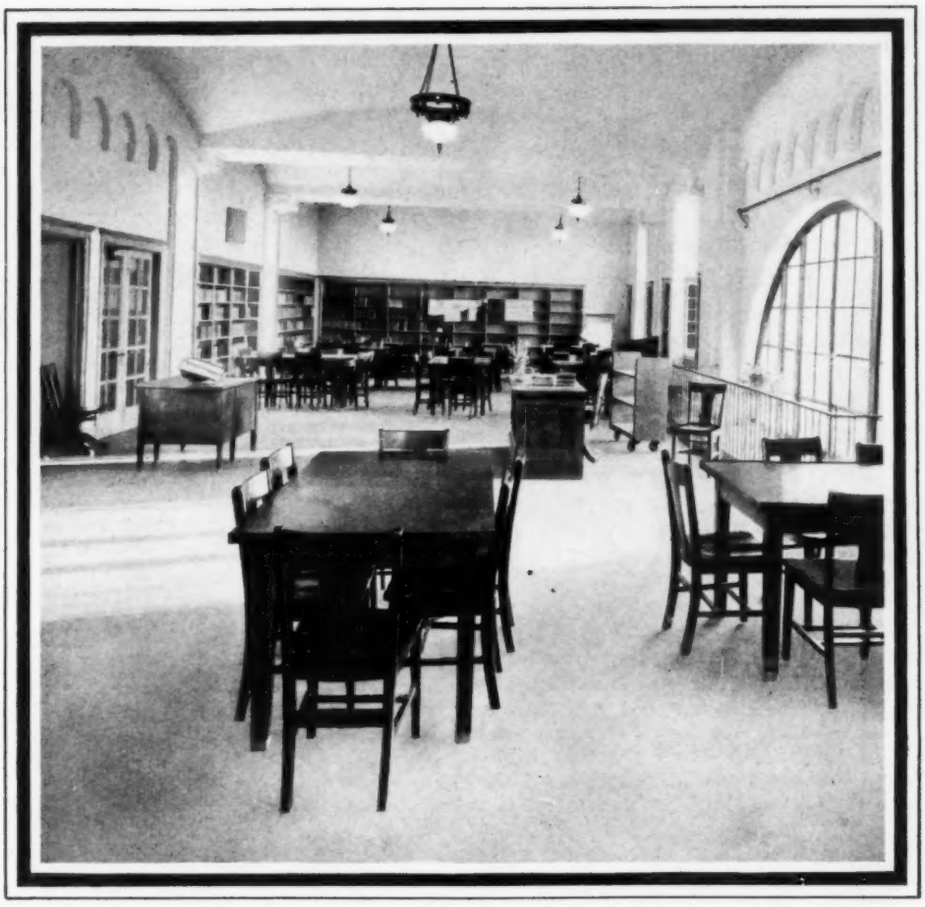

Quiet, comfort, color, cleanliness . . . in this permanently laid floor of Armstrong's Brown Battleship Linoleum; installed in the study library, South Side High School of Denver, Colorado.

NOISY, dirt catching floors have no place in the modern school They distract students—they demand double care —they increase costs.

In their places, modern floors are being enrolled. Principals, headmasters, school boards, and college officials know now that Armstrong's Linoleum Floors dismiss floor troubles. Representatives of practically every type of school are testifying: "Our Armstrong Floors prove satisfactory in every way. Even after years of severe usage they reveal no evidence of age."

In study halls where quiet is essential, distracting noises are hushed to whispers by a sound deadening Armstrong's Linoleum Floor. In dining-halls, these modern floors assure cleanliness and easy care. The Accolac-Process surface is spot-proof, stain-proof. Cleaning is simplified! In class-rooms and corridors, the resilience and warmth of Armstrong's Linoleum provide real foot-comfort.

Yes, wherever modern floors are enrolled, these model virtues — and permanence, economy, and beauty, too—make Armstrong's Linoleum first choice. There's an Armstrong Floor design to suit any decorative plan. If you like, our School Service Department will help you to decide upon the correct patterns. Write also for the book, "Enduring Floors of Good Taste," for complete information. Armstrong Cork Company, Floor Division, Lancaster, Penna.

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In the Educational Field

LOWELL E. SMITH has been reelected superintendent of schools at Madison, Kan.

D. M. TORRANCE, superintendent of schools at Fremont, Iowa, has resigned his office to become general sales manager for a manufacturing company. HENRY J. BOEYINK will succeed him as superintendent of the Fremont schools.

R. L. HUNT has been chosen superintendent of city schools, Madison, S. D. He is also director of secondary education at Eastern State Teachers College.

W. H. HOLLANDS has resigned as superintendent of schools, Deep River, Minn., to accept a similar position at Monticello. He will be succeeded by GEORGE E. BODIN, superintendent of schools, Rushford, Minn., the past three years.

L. G. WALLACE, superintendent of the Oakland School, Oakland, Miss., for the past ten years, has resigned to accept a similar position with the Tallahatchie Agricultural School, Charleston, Miss.

LINDON H. STROUGH, principal of the high school, Fulton, N. Y., has been chosen principal of the high school, Niagara Falls, N. Y. He will succeed WALTER S. FRASER who resigned to accept the superintendency of education at Tonawanda, N. Y.

FREDERICK W. PORTER, superintendent of schools, Stoneham, Mass., has been appointed to the superintendency at Greenfield, Mass. He succeeds WINTHROP P. ABBOTT, resigned, and will assume his new duties August 1.

GEORGE E. BROWN, for the last thirteen years city superintendent of schools of Greeley, Colo., has been chosen commissioner of education for Wyoming by the Wyoming State Board of Education. MR. BROWN will fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of LEWIS C. TIDBALL, who served as commissioner for eight years.

NORMAN GIFFORD, sub-principal for three years at the Westport High School, New Bedford, Mass., has been named headmaster by the school board to succeed MILTON EARLE, who will devote his entire time to his duties as superintendent. MR. EARLE was named superintendent last year but also continued his duties as high school principal.

C. E. DUDLEY has been reelected superintendent of schools, Henderson, Ky.

GUY WHITEHEAD, formerly assistant superintendent of schools, Louisville, Ky., has accepted a position as superintendent of the Lexington schools. LESLIE R. GREGORY, who succeeded MR. WHITEHEAD in the Louisville school system, recently was elected president of the Louisville Educational Association.

OSCAR M. FOGLE, for the past eight years superintendent of public schools, Talbot County, Md., has resigned to continue his studies.

HARRY T. FOSTER, superintendent of schools, Bishop., Okla., for the past two years, has accepted the superintendency at Arnett, Okla.

LEWIS P. HOLLIDAY, superintendent of the Crystal Falls schools, Crystal Falls, Mich., for the past six years, has resigned to become superintendent of schools at Hillsdale, Mich.

E. W. JACOBSEN, principal of the Roosevelt High School, Oakland, Calif., has accepted a part-time position with the department of secondary education at Teachers College, Columbia University. MR. JACOBSEN, who succeeds FRANKLIN W. JOHNSON, new president of Colby College, will offer courses in the administration of secondary schools.

WILLIAM CASSIUS COOK has become state superintendent of schools in West Virginia. He succeeds GEORGE M. FORD.

G. H. MARSHALL, who has been superintendent of schools at Augusta, Kan., for the past twelve years, has been reelected for another two-year term.

DR. DAVID A. WARD, superintendent of the public schools of Wilmington, Del., for the past eight years, has resigned to accept the superintendency at Chester, Del.

HOMER BORTNER has been reelected superintendent of schools at Millville, N. J.

E. J. GILBERT has been reelected superintendent of schools at Alabama City, Ala.

ROBERT H. ADAMS, for six years supervising principal of public schools, Deland, Fla., has been appointed supervising principal of public schools, Fort Pierce, Fla. MR. ADAMS succeeds PROF. EMMETT TAYLOR.

ALFRED TUNEM, superintendent of schools, Victor, Mont., has accepted the position of superintendent of the consolidated school district, East Stanwood, Wash.

CONRAD C. MUEHE, principal of the high school, Naples, N. Y., has been chosen as superintendent of schools for the third supervisory district comprising Seneca, Gorham, Hopewell and Geneva, N. Y.

J. HARVEY SWEENEY, superintendent of schools, Brooksville, Ky., has resigned to accept the superintendency at Livermore, Ky.

A. K. MCKEMIE, superintendent of public schools, Harrodsburg, Ky., for the past ten years, has resigned his position to complete special studies at the University of Cincinnati in preparation for a college professorship.

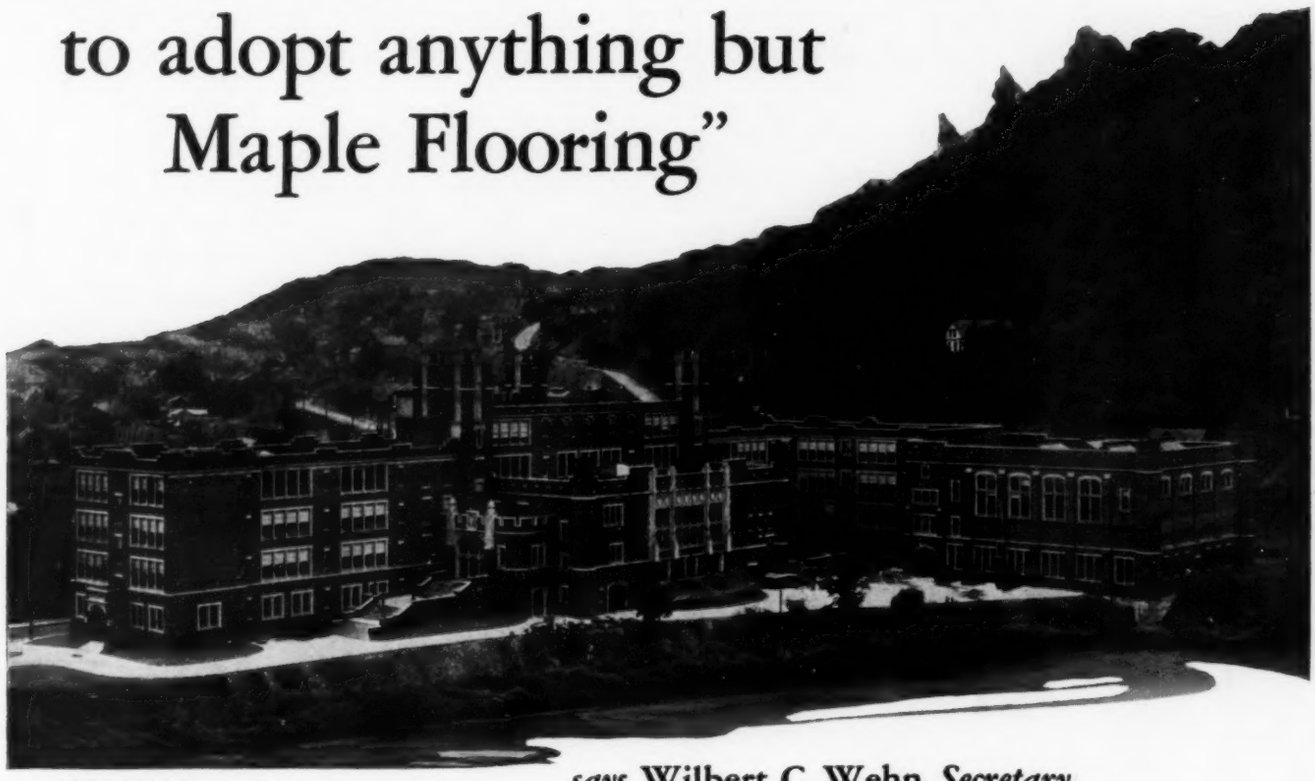
W. L. BOBBITT, for nine years a member of the high-school faculty, Lexington, Tenn., has been elected superintendent of schools, Henderson County, Kentucky, to succeed J. O. BROWN, who declined reelection.

M. J. CLARKE, superintendent of schools, Union City, Tenn., has resigned his position to continue his studies for a doctor's degree at the University of California.

C. KASPER has been chosen superintendent of schools, Flatonia, Tex., to succeed H. C. SIMON, resigned.

PATRICK T. CAMPBELL, who has been a member of the faculty of the Boston Public Latin School for thirty-two years, has been elected assistant superintendent of the Boston schools. He succeeds A. L. RAFTER, retired.

"In no case have we seen fit to adopt anything but Maple Flooring"



High School, Johnstown, Pa.

says Wilbert C. Wehn, *Secretary*
Board of School Directors, Johnstown, Pa.

"We have adopted Hard Maple throughout all classrooms and have used nothing else in any building for the past ten years.

"We are no exception to the general predicament in which school boards have been finding themselves, after building several buildings and coming to the end of proceeds of bond sales, with more buildings to build.

"Our bids on recent buildings have all called for alternates, the adoption of which would enable us to reduce the cost of the building. Substitution of cheaper flooring for the Maple Flooring specified, has been one of those alternates, but in no case have we seen fit to adopt any such flooring alternates or use anything but Maple flooring, regardless of cost."

Experience, as Wilbert C. Wehn explains, has showed the Board of School Directors, Johnstown, Pa., that there is no satisfactory substitute for Hard Maple Flooring in educational structures.

Back of the widespread use of Northern Hard Maple in school buildings is the fact that here is one flooring material which combines warm, dry, cushioning comfort with the qualities of lasting wear which school use demands.

This resilient flooring material is remarkably tough-fibred and tight-grained. It will not sliver or splinter. Scuffing, youthful feet and the moving of equipment simply make it smoother with time. Northern Hard Maple, moreover, because of its permanent smoothness, is exceptionally easy to clean and keep clean. It offers no open lodging places for dust and germ-laden dirt to collect. And it permits quick, simple, permanent anchorage for seats, or re-arrangement of seats any time.

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Members of the Maple Flooring Manufacturers Association have contributed many thousands of dollars and years of work to standardize and improve the manufacture and grade uniformity of Northern Maple, Beech and Birch Flooring. The following manufacturers only are licensed to use the Association Trademark MFMA. Specify MFMA on the flooring you use.

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Cummer-Diggins Company	Cadillac, Mich.
Flanner Company	Blackwell, Wis.
Foster-Latimer Lumber Co.	Mellen, Wis.
Herman H. Hettler Lumber Co.	Chicago, Ill.
Holt Hardwood Company	Oconto, Wis.
Indiana Flooring Company (Mill at Reed City, Mich.)	New York, N. Y.
Mitchell Brothers Company	Cadillac, Mich.
Nichols & Cox Lumber Co.	Grand Rapids, Mich.
North Branch Flooring Co.	Chicago, Ill.
Northwestern Cooperage & Lumber Company	Gladstone, Mich.
Oval Wood Dish Corporation	Tupper Lake, N. Y
Robbins Flooring Company	Rhinelander, Wis.
Sawyer Goodman Company	Marinette, Wis.
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In the Educational Field

J. W. CRABTREE has been reelected secretary of the National Education Association for a term of four years. MR. CRABTREE was the first full-time secretary of the N. E. A. and this will be his fourth four-year term.

FRANK M. SMITH, former superintendent of schools, Johnson City, N. Y., recently was honored with the title of superintendent emeritus in recognition of his many years of service.

FREDERICK RICHMOND HATHAWAY, former superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Mich., died recently. He served four years as superintendent of schools at Flint and a similar term at Grand Rapids.

BAXTER L. REDDEN, Danville, Ind., has been elected superintendent of the Mecca Township schools, Trumbull County, Ohio.

L. R. SMITH, Williamsburg, Ohio, has been reelected superintendent of the Salem Township schools, Highland County, Ohio.

J. F. ALFORD, West Jefferson, Ohio, has been reelected superintendent of the Fairfield Centralized Schools, Madison County, Ohio.

C. W. COLLINS, principal of the Walton Graded and High School, Walton, Ky., has been chosen as superintendent of schools, Falmouth, Ky.

L. DARL MOORE, a member of the faculty of the high school, Spencer, W. Va., has accepted the superintendency at Mt. Hope, W. Va.

H. C. PAULSON, superintendent of schools, Donnybrook, N. D., has been elected to a similar position at Bottineau, N. D.

HUBERT S. UPJOHN, South Pasadena, Calif., has been appointed superintendent of the Los Angeles County schools. He fills the vacancy caused by the death last year of MARK KEPPEL.

H. RAY WAGNER, superintendent of schools, Campbellstown, Ohio, has accepted the superintendency of the Lanier township schools, Preble County, Ohio. He has been at the head of the Campbellstown schools for the past three years.

DR. HENRY S. CURTIS, director of hygiene and physical education, University of Missouri, resigned his position June 1. DOCTOR CURTIS, who has been associated with the University of Missouri for the past six years, will lecture at Duke University, Durham, N. C., during the summer months.

DR. WILLIAM A. WIRT, superintendent of public schools, Gary, Ind., for the past twenty-three years, was presented with a life membership in the National Education Association at a meeting of the Gary teachers recently.

L. P. FARRIS, principal, Alexander Hamilton Junior High School, Oakland, Calif., was elected president of the Association of California Secondary-School Principals at the annual convention held in Oakland.

H. R. FURST has been reelected superintendent of schools at Cedarville, Ohio, for a term of three years.

E. C. DABE, superintendent of schools, Madison Mills, Ohio, has been appointed superintendent at Jeffersonville, Ohio.

R. M. EYMAN, Lancaster, Ohio, has been reelected superintendent of county schools for a term of two years.

RAYMOND VIRTUE, member of the high school faculty, Ontario, Ohio, has been promoted to the superintendency of the Lancaster schools.

A. G. YAWBERG, superintendent, Cuyahoga County schools, Ohio, has been appointed superintendent of schools, Parma, Ohio.

LUCIUS S. WRIGHT, formerly superintendent of schools, Weleetka, Okla., has accepted the superintendency of the Okfuskee County High School, Paden, Okla.

GEORGE R. LOUGHEAD has been reelected superintendent of schools, Poplar Bluff, Mo.

L. L. WRIGHT, superintendent of schools, De Soto, Iowa, the past four years, has been named superintendent of schools, Bedford, Iowa.

C. H. NOSLER has been reelected city superintendent of grade schools, Hillsboro, Ore.

C. E. JOHNSON has resigned as principal of the high school, Laurel, Mont., to become superintendent at Joliet, Mont.

W. RHYS POWELL, superintendent of public schools, Scranton, Pa., since 1922, died April 27. MR. POWELL, who was forty-five years old, was a well known educator, and prior to his election as superintendent served on the staffs of Mt. Pleasant Military Academy, Ossining, N. Y., and the Technical High School, Scranton.

WILLIAM C. HOBBS, superintendent of schools, Bristol, R. I., for the past ten years, has resigned his position because of ill health.

PAUL C. BOETHEL, head athletic coach for the schools of Orange, Tex., has been chosen as superintendent of schools at Hallettsville, Tex.

J. D. ANDREWS, principal of the high school, Minneapolis, Kan., for the past two years, has been appointed superintendent of the public-school system at Scandia, Kan. He succeeds HERSHEL KANNIER.

C. M. WORKMAN, superintendent of schools at Hamburg, Iowa, for the past five years, has submitted his resignation to become effective July 1, 1930, when he will take up new duties as head of the public-school system at Carbonsdale, Pa.

CHARLES S. MILLER, superintendent of schools at Latrobe, Pa., has accepted the superintendency of schools at Lansdowne. JOHN G. HULTON, principal of the Latrobe High School, has been advanced to the office of superintendent and MARK N. FUNK, principal of the Hollidaysburg High School, will succeed MR. HULTON as head of the Latrobe High School.

The School Library

has become an integral part of present day essential school equipment. It is important to the school official to know that he can put his library requirements into our hands with the feeling that the orders will be cared for completely and correctly to the last detail. We specialize in the library branch of the book business, handling library orders from many hundreds of School Boards and Colleges from all parts of the country. Satisfactory service and liberal discounts. Send us your next order, large or small, and avail yourself of the advantages which we offer to your Board.

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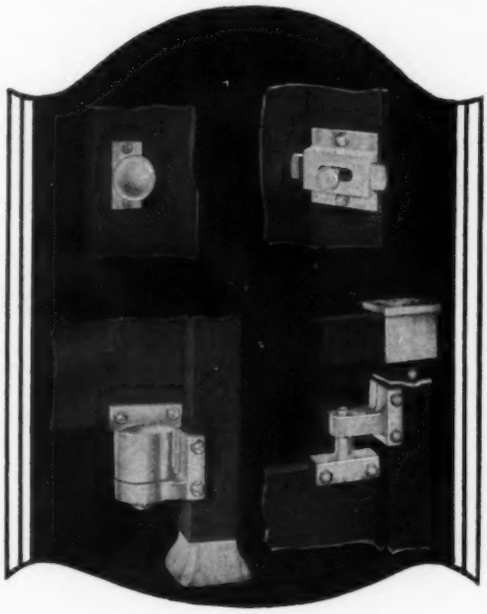

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We believe the new Marblmetal hardware is the finest ever put on toilet partitions. The new Marblmetal hinge has been operated by a testing device to equal ten years' service without perceptible wear and it is safe to say that our hinges will last a lifetime. All Marblmetal hardware is chromium plated. Send for folder illustrating and describing this wonderful new partition.

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"Hot" steam on cold days, "Cool" steam on mild days ▲▲▲ *provides healthful and economical heat for St. Mary's School, Washington, Indiana*

IN the new St. Mary's School, Washington, Indiana, a recently installed Dunham Differential Vacuum Heating System will supply equable temperatures throughout all of the building, during the coming winter and for many, many years. In extremely cold weather, pupils and nuns at St. Mary's will be warm as toast; on the milder days, which make up 95% of the heating season, the "cool" steam supplied by the Dunham Differential Vacuum Heating System will deliver exactly the proper degree of warmth to the radiators so as not to overheat the rooms. This not only prevents the window opening so often resorted to in an endeavor to control indoor temperatures, but also prevents excessive drying out of the air, conserving health and reducing fuel consumption to a marked degree.

About St. Mary's

This fine new building is from the architectural office of Sutton-Routt, Vincennes, Ind., and is an exceedingly good example of high grade modern school building of which the community is justly proud. The Dunham Differential Vacuum Heating System in St. Mary's was installed by Logan H. Peck, Heating Contractor.

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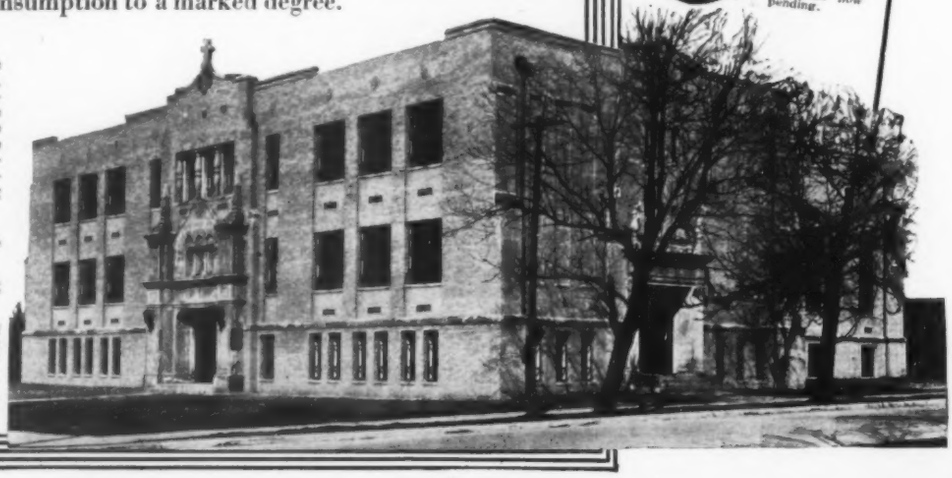
Over eighty offices in the United States and Canada and the United Kingdom bring Dunham Heating Service as close to you as your telephone. Consult your telephone directory for the address of our office in your city. An engineer will counsel with you on any project.



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Fine new schools such as St. Mary's, in Washington, Ind., are installing the Dunham Differential Vacuum Heating System because from every standpoint—comfort, economy, health, long service and dependability—it is the best type of heating that can be installed in any structure. This new Dunham System is winning the unqualified approval of school authorities.

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No matter what kinds of floors you have the Hild Floor Machine will clean and maintain them, easily, quickly and thoroughly.

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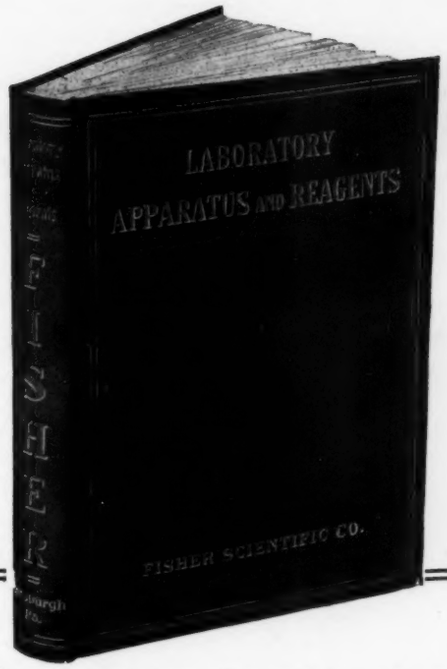
Polishing Brush
(All brushes can be attached to the machine or detached in a seconds time.)



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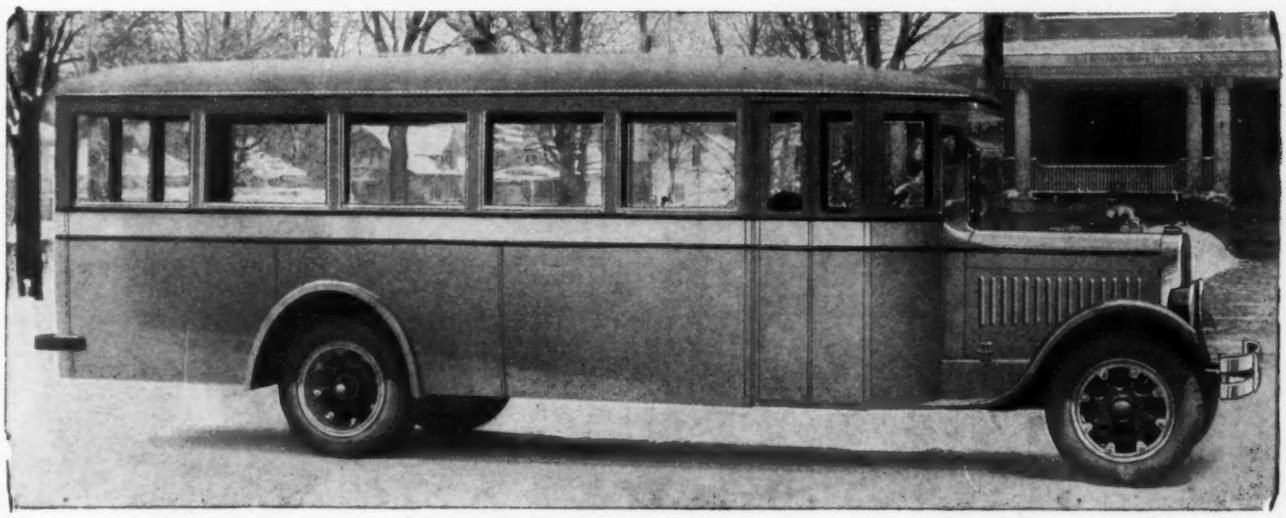

42 Passenger "HIAWATHA" School Bus Body Suitable for Mounting on All Standard Chassis of 164 to 175 in. Wheelbase Range

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Constant abuse is the lot of the public toilet seat. Constant expense for replacements is the result—*unless* you install seats so strong that they simply cannot be smashed.

Whale-bone-ite is such a seat. Though it costs no more than the cheapest composition closet seat made, its unbreakable construction—guaranteed for the life of the building—immediately ends all replacement expense.

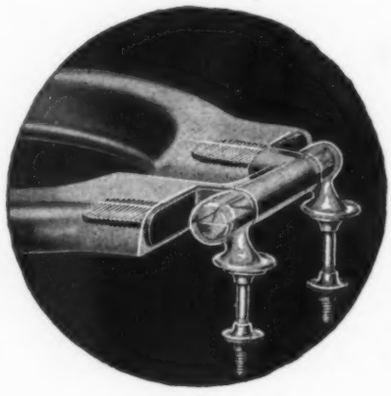
Its handsome polished Whale-bone-ite surface will last a lifetime. It is easy to clean and non-inflammable. Its hinge also is covered with Whale-bone-ite, giving it the same strong polished surface as the seat, and making it non-corrosive.

Its use is spreading to the guest bathrooms of fine hotels. Many new apartment houses are equipping all toilets with it.

Send for free cross-section —see its strength yourself

Figures show that on the average ordinary seats have to be replaced about every three years. If you want to end this needless expense, just as it already has been ended in more than a million public toilets in modern and remodelled buildings, simply install Whale-bone-ite Seats as fast as other seats wear out. Not only will the replacement expense end, but the toilets will be cleaner as Whale-bone-ite is easier to keep clean. Without obligation send for a free Whale-bone-ite cross-section. Simply address Dept. **G-4,** Seat Division, The Brunswick-Balke-Collender Co., 623 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago.

THE WHALE-BONE-ITE Seat and Hinge form an unbreakable unit. The seat is molded around a laminated core of alternating-grain layers of hardwood, making it proof against warping, cracking and splitting. The die-cast hinge is molded integral with the seat.



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BULLETIN 124

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These blinds permit draftless ventilation and a perfect control of the light.

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Marbleloid floorings are installed right over existing floors in old buildings and they combine wear-resistance with comfortable resiliency. They are modern, beautifully tinted or colored, are light in weight and once on, the upkeep is negligible.

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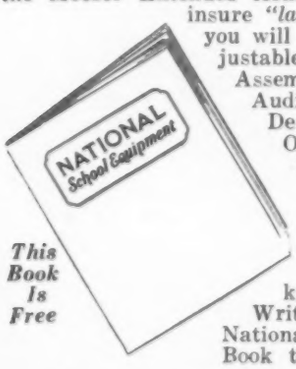

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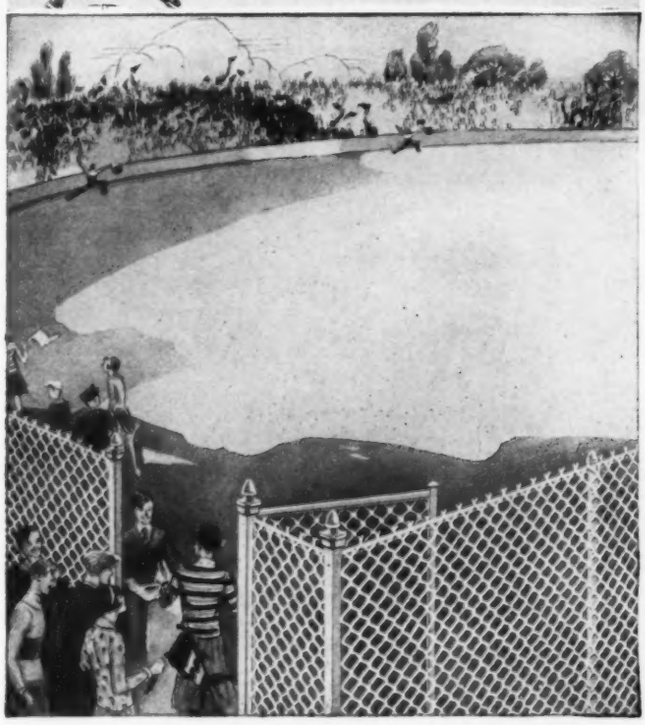
need not burden the school budget



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NO SCHOOL need restrict its athletic program because of the expense of providing proper coaches, uniforms and equipment. School athletics can be placed on a paying basis. If the athletic field is enclosed, games and events will bring sufficient revenue to more than pay expenses.

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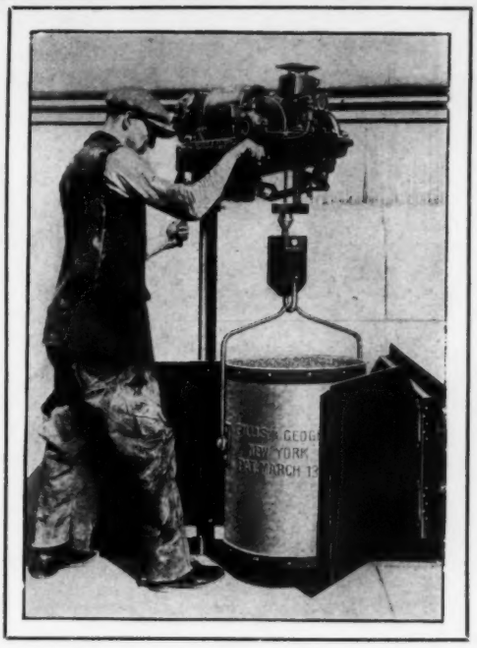

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SIGNAL SYSTEMS
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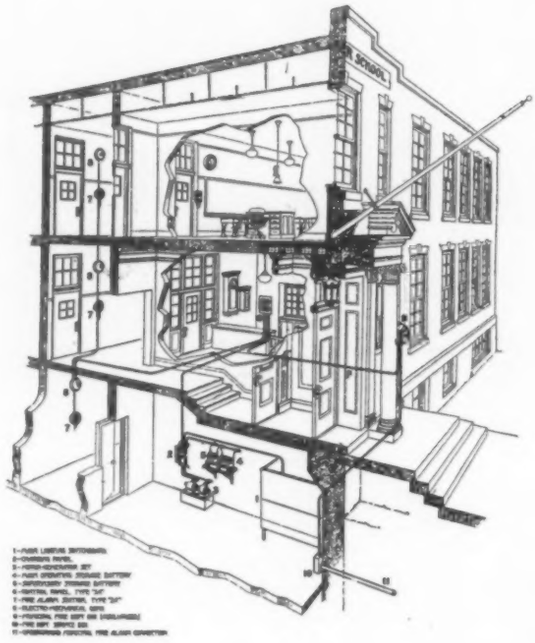

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The S. A. System is absolutely complete—a signal for a genuine fire automatically calls the city fire department—drill signals only may be given without summoning the fire apparatus.

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Like a giant book of blackboard pages, placed at the front of the room, the Alternator may be used to display the attendance record, spelling lesson, writing lesson, reading lesson, music lesson, arithmetic lesson, geography lesson, drawing lesson, nature study lesson . . . all in sequence when needed, without confusion.

It gives more blackboard space; saves the teacher's time; saves her energy by enabling her to prepare lessons in advance; saves the eyesight of the children. It makes concentration easier, and classwork more interesting. It diminishes discipline problems. It allows two divisions of a class to meet in the same room conveniently. It enables the school board to engage better teachers, because superior teachers appreciate this equipment. It is economical—low in cost, and such a time-saver that it will pay for itself in six months.

Alternators can be installed in new or old buildings. For full information, send for Catalog A-3.

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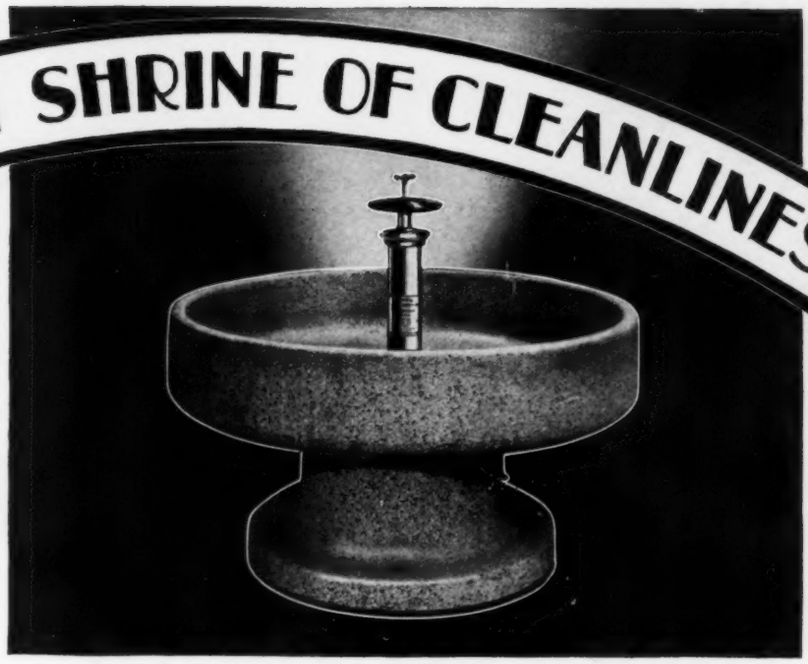

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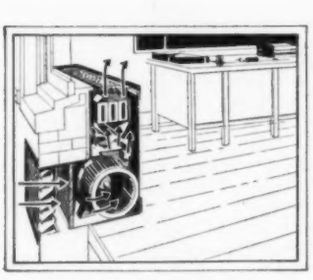

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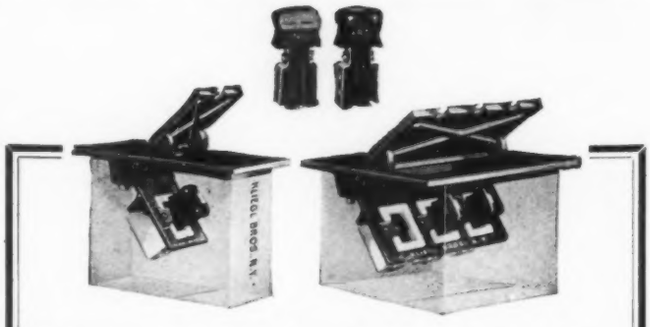

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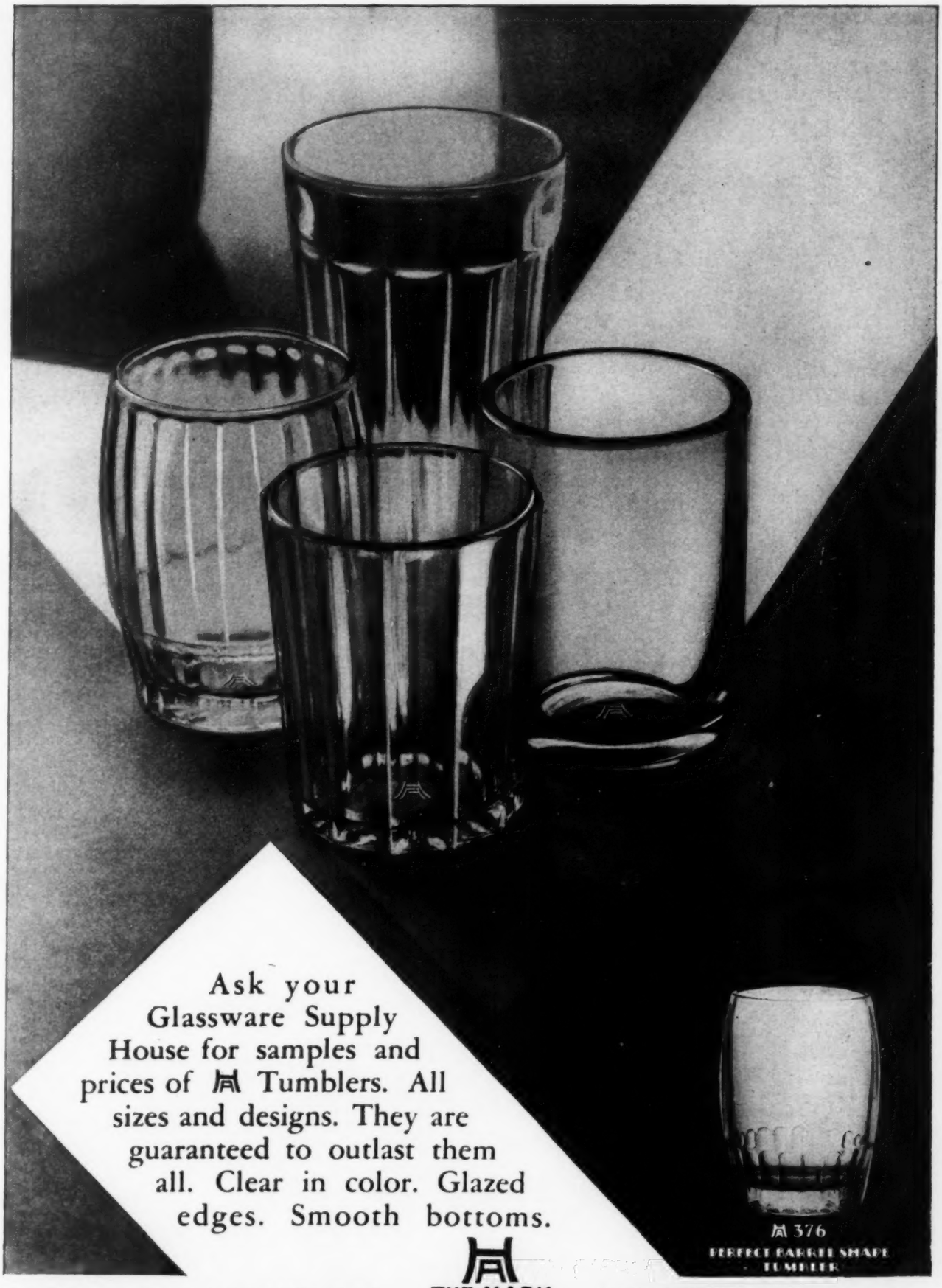

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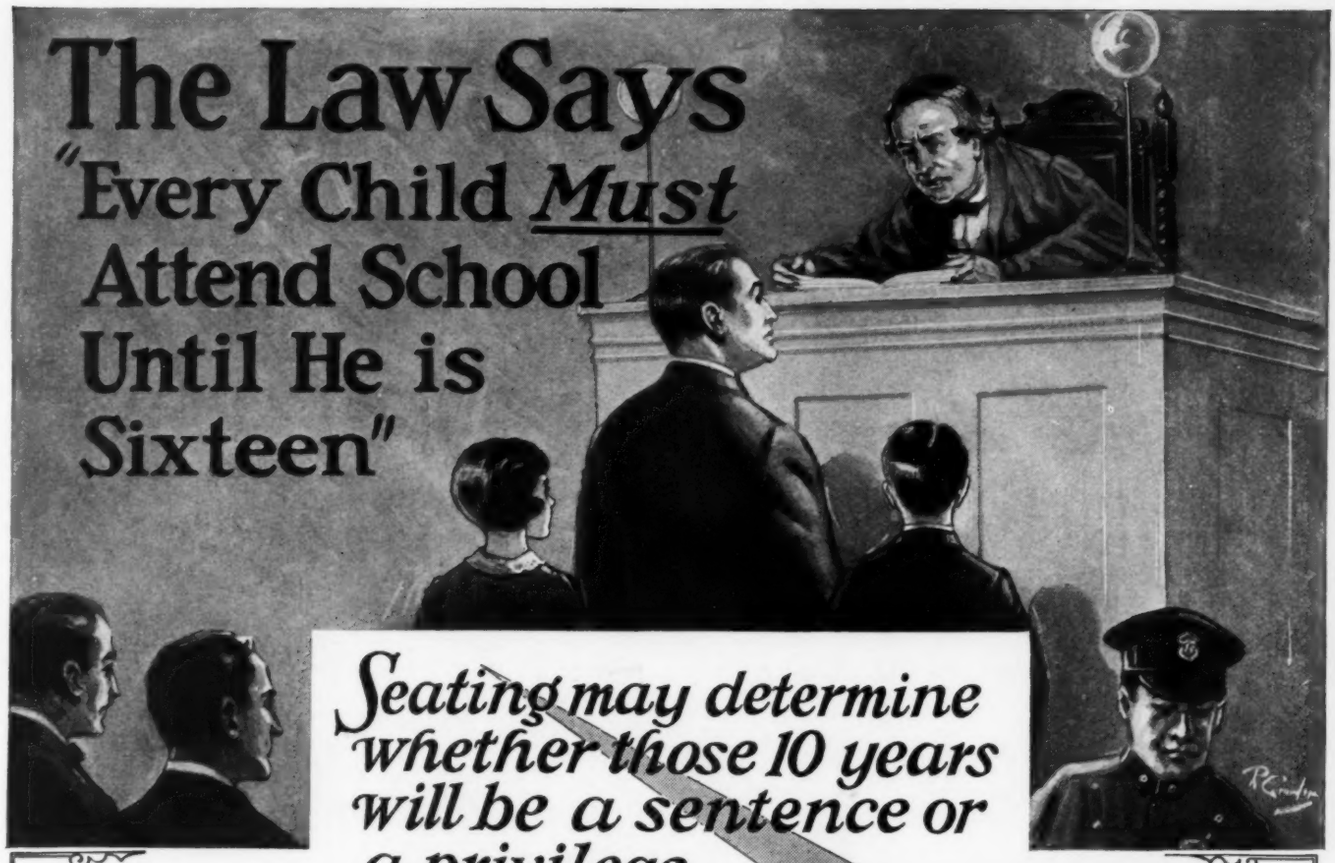

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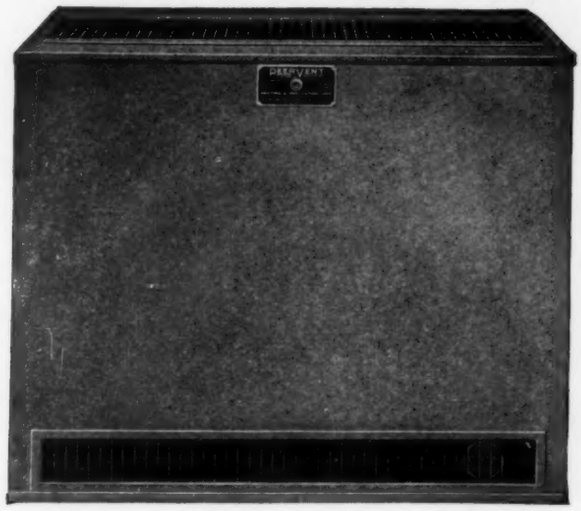

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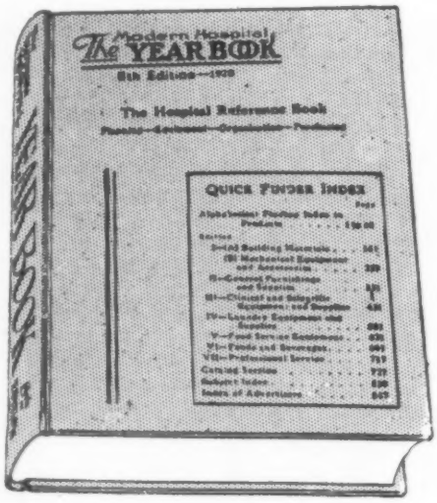

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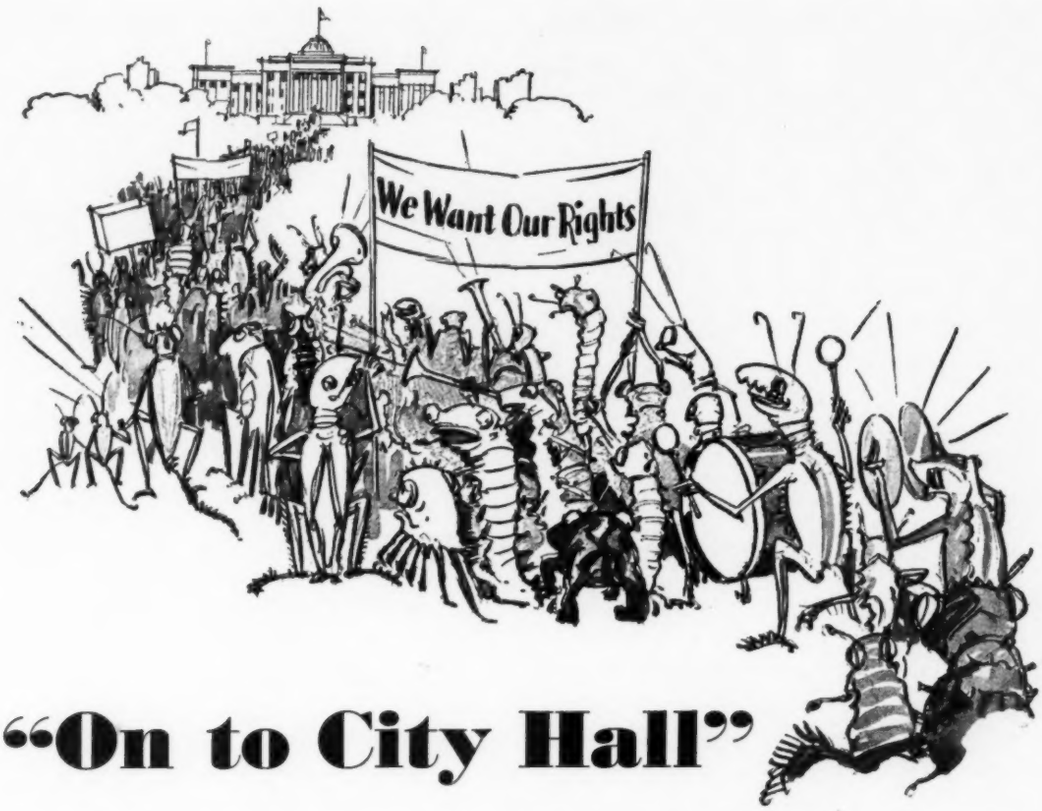

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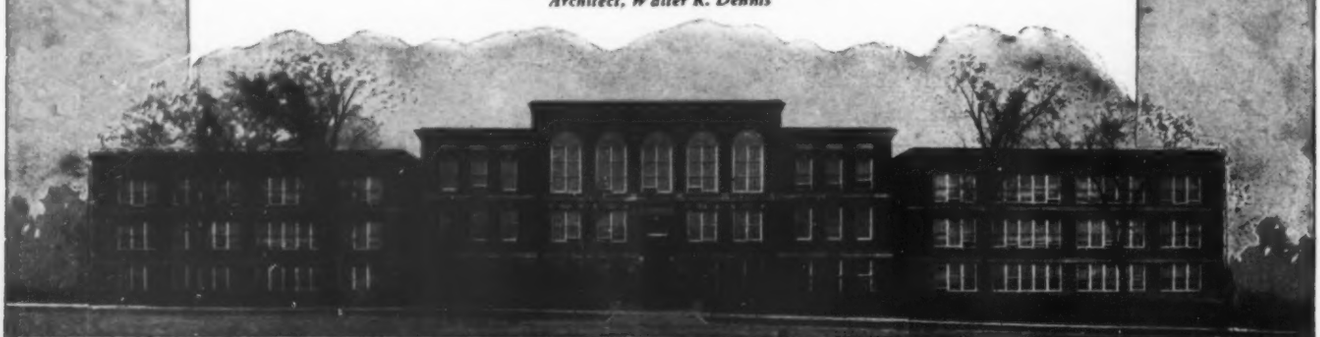

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VOLUME III

JANUARY TO JUNE, INCLUSIVE

1929

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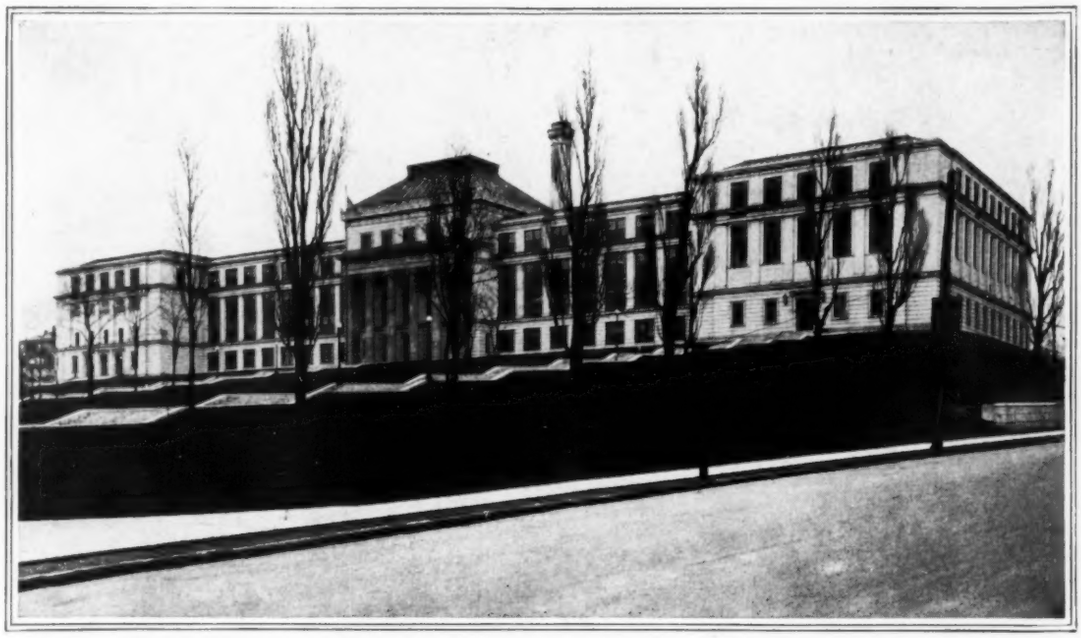

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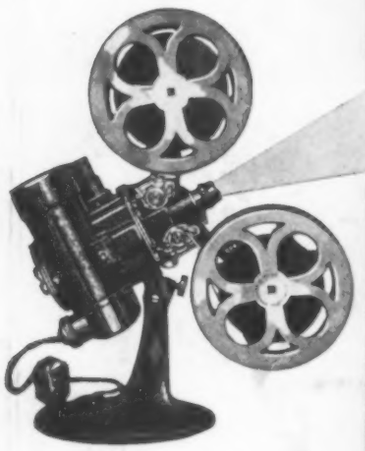

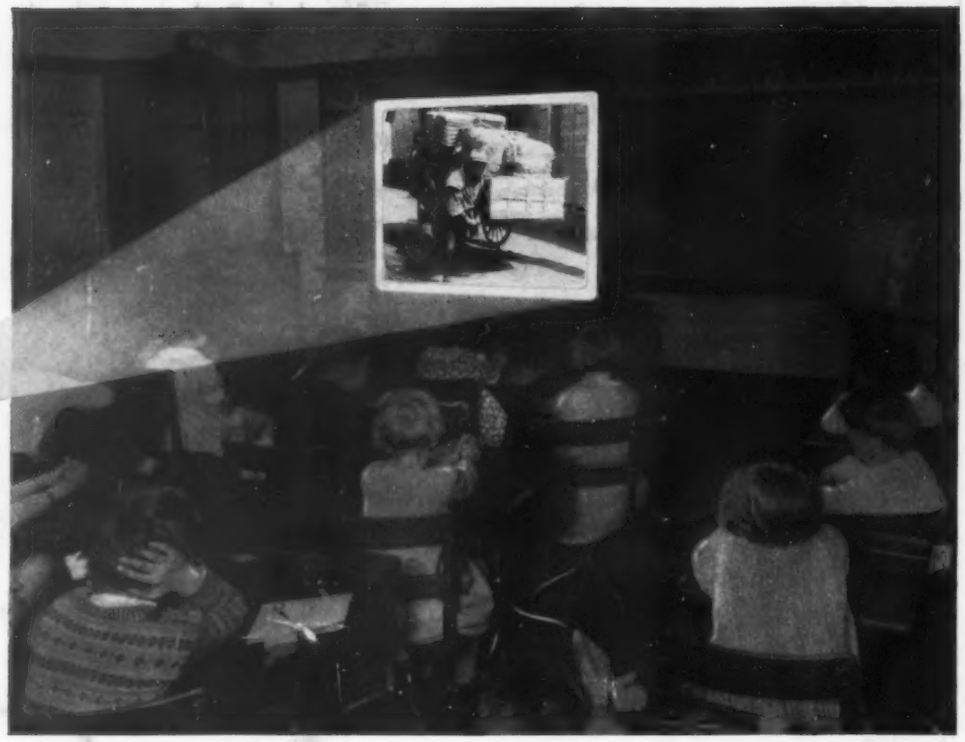

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